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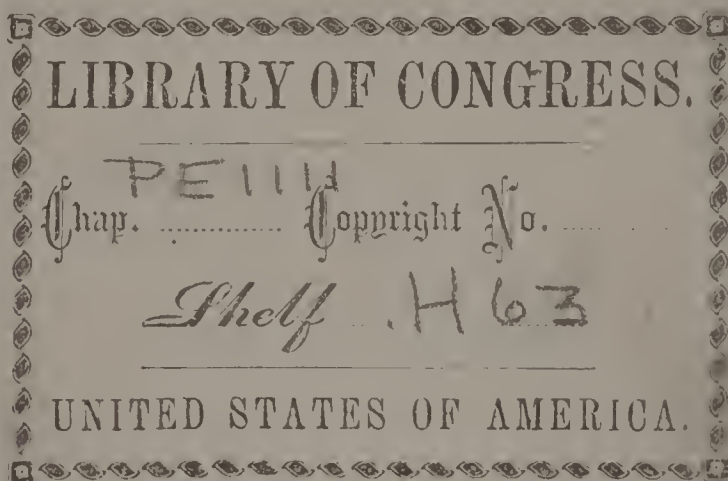
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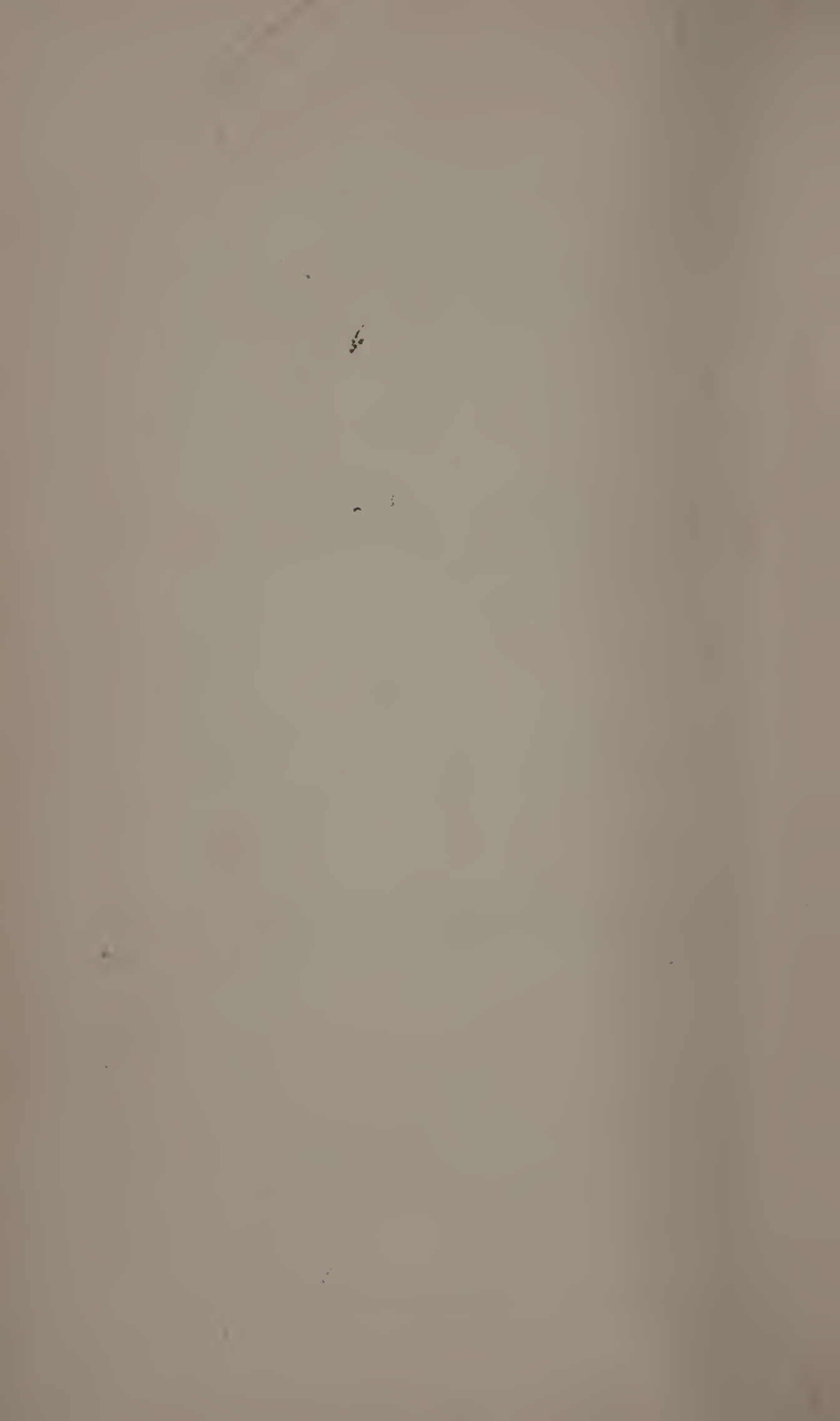
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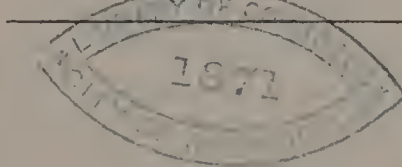
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

3/1
BY
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PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, GENERAL LITERATURE AND RHETORIC,
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

"He who can see in modern languages nothing but corruption or anomaly,
understands but little of the true nature of language."

MAX-MÜLLER. *On the Science of Language.*



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PREFACE.

WHEN this Grammar was undertaken, little more was contemplated than to adapt to the use of American schools what appeared to be best in the numerous Grammars of the English tongue recently published in England, with such additions and improvements as might be derived from other sources, including the results of private studies previously pursued. But in the process of composition new views presented themselves and stimulated increased research. Such researches suggested further modifications and wider departures from the models proposed. The work thus became less of a compilation, and assumed a degree of originality not designed at first. Its character was largely affected by the steady observance of the principle, introduced by Grimm into modern philology, of settling all disputed and doubtful points by reference to the historical alterations of the language.

The change of plan thus occasioned has rendered it impossible to distinguish between what is borrowed and what is original. All accessible sources, English and American, have been consulted and freely used. It is proper to express in general terms a grateful sense of obligation to many excellent school grammars, and to acknowledge the continual assistance obtained from Wal-

lis, Horne Tooke, Taylor, Latham, Marsh, Clark, Alford, Max Müller, and many other authors whom it would be tedious as well as ostentatious to mention. The examples and exercises have been usually taken without hesitation from preceding works of a similar nature,—a procedure adopted in most school grammars. No pretension to originality is made; the only aim has been to secure correctness, clearness, and precision. There has been every desire to rob no one of his fair fame, and to appropriate nothing which could be claimed as the discovery of a predecessor.

The present usage of the language has been regarded as the sole standard of grammatical propriety; but all existing ambiguities and difficulties have been resolved by recurring to the earlier forms of the tongue. The brevity and simplicity required in a school manual have prevented the complete introduction of the historical testimonies which sustain the views adopted, and have in many instances excluded them altogether. But the whole book rests upon an historical basis, and upon an examination of the phases through which the English has passed in the long lapse of a thousand years.

The work has been so arranged as to furnish a knowledge of the principles of English grammar in a very narrow compass; to afford a fuller acquaintance with them in their applications without entering into minute details; and to provide the teacher or the advanced student with such explanations as seemed requisite, without confounding these with what was sufficient for elementary instruction. The “Introduction to English Grammar,” which need not be committed to memory, is designed to

give a general view of the nature and subjects of English Grammar, and to secure familiarity with the leading conceptions of grammatical science. The beginner, on the first study of the body of the book, should learn and commit to memory only the large print, omitting the divisions and sections marked with an asterisk. After having accurately learnt these portions, the young scholar should go over the whole again, and should learn what is noted with an asterisk, and also all that is in print of the second size. The observations, which are in the smallest type, are intended for the use of teachers, and of such pupils as may be able to profit by them.

Questions on the text are placed at the foot of each page for the convenience of teachers and scholars, but the practice of acquiring or imparting knowledge by means of printed questions is commended to neither teacher nor scholar. The questions may be and should be varied by the instructor whenever it is practicable.

The exercises are made brief in order to prevent unnecessary delays, and to diminish the size and cost of the book. Brief manuals are most appropriate for elementary instruction. All that is requisite is sufficient practice to illustrate the rules and to secure familiarity with the principles. A few examples of parsing, with appropriate references to the definitions and rules, and a few passages to be parsed, have been introduced in order to supply whatever may be deemed requisite for elementary instruction in English Grammar. These passages exhibit the customary characteristics of the language. They consist almost entirely of extracts from writings of acknowledged reputation, but of the most diverse styles. Parsing exercises

may be readily multiplied to any extent desired, by using the school reading-books as texts for this purpose. The language is then studied in its living connections. It is designed, however, to prepare a series of small exercise-books for parsing and for the fuller illustration of the idiomatic and other peculiarities of the English tongue. It is also proposed, at some future time, should leisure permit and the public demand justify it, to publish either a copious and critical Grammar of the English language, or a volume of Notes on English Grammar, capable of ready use in connection with the present work, for the elucidation of the numerous difficulties of the tongue, and for the attestation of the principles laid down and applied in this book.

With the hope that this effort to facilitate an accurate acquaintance with the grammar of the English language may prove serviceable to the youth of the country, it is diffidently submitted to the favorable consideration of teachers and of the public.

NOTE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

In this revised edition, some alterations, for the most part trifling in character, have been made. Errors that have been discovered or pointed out have been corrected; some changes have been made in the nomenclature or expression, for the sake of greater simplicity; and considerable additions have been made to the Exercises in Parsing and in Analysis. Due attention has been paid to favorable and unfavorable criticisms; and much benefit has been derived from the suggestions of teachers who have used the book with their classes. Such suggestions will always be received with thankfulness, and fully considered, though they may not always be adopted.

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Introduction to English Grammar.*



I.

1. When we talk, we use Language to express our thoughts, or feelings, or wishes.

When we say, "The sun shines," "I am cold," "Make a fire," we employ language.

2. **Language** is composed of Words.

"The," "sun," "shines," "I," "am," "cold," "make," "a," "fire," are words.

3. **Words** taken separately are not language.

Words, when used separately, are parts of language, but they are not language, because they do not convey any complete meaning. The wheels of a watch are not a watch, though they form a watch when properly put together.

"The," "make," "cold," "am," are words, but they convey no distinct meaning when they stand alone.

4. Words must be joined together so as to express a complete meaning, before they constitute language.

"I am cold" is language, because it expresses a distinct and complete meaning.

* This Introduction is designed to give a general view of the nature of language, the uses and kinds of words, and the subjects of English Grammar. It should be made the basis of oral instruction, so as to prepare the pupil for the study of systematic grammar.

1. What do we use when we talk? 2. What is Language composed of? 3. Do words taken separately make language? Why not? 4. How must words be used to constitute language?

5. Words joined together so as to convey a complete meaning, form Sentences.

“The sun shines,” “Make a fire,” are sentences.

6. A **Sentence** is a collection of words conveying a distinct meaning, and expressing a complete thought or feeling; as, *The sun shines; I am cold.*

OBS.—Sometimes a sentence appears to consist of a single word; as, “*Go*,” “*Come*,” “*Here*.” But, in such cases, other words are understood to complete the form of the sentence. “*Go*” means “*go thou*,” “*Come*” means “*come thou*,” “*Here*,” means “*here I am*,” or “*here he is*,” or “*come here*,” or something else suggested by the connection in which the word is used.

7. In the study of language, we study words and their employment in the formation of sentences.

8. Language is either Spoken or Written, and the words of which language is composed are spoken or written words.

When we listen to any one speaking, we hear spoken language.

When we gather from a letter or a book what is communicated, we read written language.

When we speak, we use spoken language; when we write, we use written language.

OBS.—Printing is a substitute for writing, and is included under written language.

9. Spoken words consist of a sound or sounds which convey a definite signification.

10. Written words consist of a letter or letters which are used as signs of the sounds employed in the formation of spoken words.

5. What do words expressing a distinct meaning form? 6. What is a Sentence? Give examples of sentences. 7. What do we study in the study of language? 8. What are the two kinds of language? What are the two kinds of words? When do we hear spoken language? When do we read written language? When do we use spoken language? When do we use written language? 9. What do spoken words consist of? 10. What do written words consist of? What are letters?

"I," "you," "he," "thunder," "lightning," when pronounced, are *spoken* words. When they are read, as they stand in books, they are *written* words.

Spoken language is earlier than written language. Both are regarded as *stages* of language, though not always at the same time.

11. Different words serve different uses in the construction of sentences.

In the sentence, "I am cold," the words "I," "am," "cold," serve different purposes.

OBS. 1.—Different words are sometimes expressed by the same sounds; as, *I, eye, aye; ale, ail.*

OBS. 2.—The same forms of words—the same words, if attention be confined to the sounds or letters composing them—are used in different ways, and thus become different words; as, *a nail*, and *to nail up a box.*

12. Words are of different kinds, according to the different uses which they serve in the construction of sentences.

The words "I," "am," "cold," signify different things, and also serve different uses in the formation of the sentence "I am cold." These words are different in kind.

OBS.—The character of words must be learnt before the nature of sentences and of language can be understood.

II.

Words signifying Things.

13. Many words signify things which may be touched or handled; as, *knife, pen, book, chair, table, dog, horse, man.*

14. Such words supply names for the things spoken of.

We cannot describe or speak about anything, unless we give it a name.

11. Do all words serve the same purposes in the construction of sentences? Illustrate this by forming sentences, and showing what words serve different uses.
 12. Are all words of the same kind? Point out words of different kinds in sentences.
 13. What do many words signify? Give other words of the same kind.
 14. What do such words supply? Name the things in the school-room.

15. Words, that are names of things, are called Nouns.

Knife, book, pen, etc., are nouns.

16. Many things may be named which cannot be touched or handled, but which are perceived by some of the senses; as, *day, night, sun, moon, stars, wind.*

Such words are nouns because they are names of things.

17. Many words denote things which cannot be directly perceived by the senses, but which are recognized by the mind; as, *anger, pleasure, pain, gain, loss.*

These are names of things, and, therefore, are nouns.

18. Other words signify things which have no separate existence of their own. They name things which exist only in other things with which they are connected.

Such words are *color, heat, whiteness, warmth, length, truth.*

OBS.—These words denote qualities or properties belonging to things; but they name those qualities or properties, and they are, therefore, nouns.

19. Nouns are words which are names of things.

OBS. 1.—The things, of which words are the names, may be touched or handled, as *a kettle, an andiron*; or may be perceived by one or more of the senses, as *sound, light, a breeze*; or by the mind aided by the senses, as *joy, grief*; or by the mind alone, as *virtue, vice, crime.*

The things named by nouns may have an actual or a conceivable existence only. They may exist by themselves, or only in connection with something else.

OBS. 2.—Any word used as a name is a noun while so used. In the sentence, *Come is a Verb*—*come* is a noun, because employed as the name of a word.

15. What are words, which name things, called? 16. What other things may be named by words? Give examples of such names. 17. What kind of things are named by many other words? Mention words of this kind. 18. What other things are also named by words? Specify words of this sort. 19. What are nouns?

III.

Words signifying Qualities of things.

20. Things are distinguished from each other by the qualities or properties belonging to them ; as, *a white horse, a bay horse, a gray horse.*

There are two pieces of ribbon, alike in other respects, but the one is *red*, the other is *green*. They are distinguished by difference of color. One is marked by the color *red*, the other by the color *green*.

Red is seen in the one ribbon. It is seen also in blood, in bricks, in vermilion ; and in many other things. *Green* is seen in the other ribbon. It is seen also in grass, in the leaves of trees, in verdigris, etc.

Neither *red* nor *green* can be seen by themselves. We can only see something that is *red*, and something that is *green*.

Red, green, and similar words denote qualities or properties existing in things, and are perceived only in the things in which they exist.

21. **Qualities or Properties** existing in things are called **Attributes** of those things.

When we speak of "*a bay horse*," the quality signified by *bay* is an attribute of the horse, and is regarded as connected with the horse. When we say "*a black sheep*," the quality *black* is attributed to the sheep.

22. Qualities and properties may be considered apart from the things in which they exist, and may be named separately ; as, *blackness, whiteness, heat.*

When the qualities are so considered and named, their names are nouns.

23. Words which name qualities connected with

20. How are things distinguished from each other ? Give examples of such distinctions. 21. What are qualities or properties existing in things called ? 22. Can qualities or properties be considered by themselves ? What are their names, then ? 23. What are words, which name qualities connected with things, called ?

things, or **Attributive words**, are called **Adjectives**.

Green, beautiful, red, bright are adjectives.

Obs.—Adjectives, as well as nouns, are names. Nouns name things. Adjectives name qualities or properties existing in things.

24. Adjectives are words which name qualities or properties attributed to things.

When we say *a graceful lady*, the quality of *grace* is ascribed to a lady.

When we say *a violent wind*, the property of *violence* is attributed to the wind.

When we say *an ungainly person*, the quality of *ungainliness* is ascribed to a person.

The words *graceful, violent, ungainly*, name qualities considered in connection with “a lady,” “a wind,” “a person,” respectively, and are adjectives.

25. Adjectives always refer to nouns, expressed or understood.

When we say, “Here is a piece of *white* cloth,” the adjective *white* refers to the noun *cloth*, which is expressed.

When we say “*White* may be seen further than *black*,” the adjectives *white* and *black* refer to a noun—color, or colors—which is understood without being expressed.

In the phrase, “The *Holy One* of Israel,” *Holy* refers to *One*, which is understood to mean God, the name of the Supreme Being—therefore a noun.

Exercises.

I. Name some Qualities or Properties in connection with each of the following things.

Rocks, bones, coffee, trees, mice, birds, beans, water jewels, dogs, ducks, dresses, plants, apples, oranges, houses churches, games.

What kind of words are those which denotes qualities in this way?

24. What are Adjectives? Show the nature of adjectives by examples. 25. What do adjectives always refer to? Explain this by examples.

II. Join suitable Adjectives with the following words.

Days, nights, dreams, rooms, bonnets, lessons, boys, marbles, roads, carriages, branches, streets.

III. Supply Nouns in the following phrases.

Muddy —, broad —, deep —, bright —, wooden —, white —, heavy —, long —, righteous —, wise —, soft —, gentle —, true —.

IV. Point out the Nouns and Adjectives in the following expressions.

Good children, things good and bad, great industry, a wooden bucket, a heavy loss, white raiment, rainy mornings, hot bread, sweet cakes, men eager and anxious, a dangerous attempt, a dirty village, slovenly girls, bright faces.

IV.

Words employed to limit the application of nouns.

26. Some nouns name individual things only; as, *John, Cæsar, London, Asia.*

These are called Proper Names, or Proper Nouns, because they are appropriated to individual persons, places, or things.

27. Most nouns are names of classes or kinds of things, and do not alone name individuals of the class or kind; as, *lion, tiger, flower, rose, river, iron, wheat, straw.*

The noun *lion* is the name given to the whole class of lions. It does not by itself mean any single lion, or any particular lions: so *iron* means a kind of metal.

Such names are called Common Nouns, because they are names common to a whole class, and to any or all of the members of the class.

26. What do some nouns name? What are individual names called? 27. What do most nouns name? What are these names of classes called?

28. Certain words are employed to indicate any single individual, or a particular individual, or particular individuals of a class of things.

Lion is applied to the whole class of lions. We must use other words to limit the signification or application of the name *lion*, when we desire to speak of any single lion, or when we would indicate a particular lion, or particular lions.

29. *A* or *an*, and *the* are the words employed to limit the application of nouns in this way.

We say, *a chair, an owl; the chair, the owl; the chairs, the owls.*

30. *A* or *an* is employed to signify that a single member of the class is spoken of, and that no particular individual of the class is meant.

A chair denotes a single chair, and is applied to any chair, without indicating any chair in particular.

An owl means a single owl, but does not mean any particular owl.

A is used before words beginning with a consonant sound; as, *a boat.*

An is used before words beginning with a vowel sound; as, *an apple.*

31. *The* is used to signify a particular individual, or particular individuals of a class, and points out those which are meant; as, *the chair, the chairs.*

The chair signifies a single chair, but indicates a particular chair.

The ox signifies a single ox, but specifies one particular ox.

The chairs denotes several chairs, but refers to certain particular chairs.

28. How is it shown whether particular individuals of a class are spoken of, or not? 29. What words are employed to limit the application of nouns? 30. What is *a* or *an* employed to signify? When is *a*, and when is *an* used? 31. What is *the* used to signify? Give examples of the use of *the*.

32. The words *a*, *an*, and *the* are called Articles.

33. **Articles** are words employed to show the manner in which nouns are used in a sentence, and to determine their application.

34. *A* or *an* is called the Indefinite Article, because it leaves undefined or undetermined the particular member of the class signified by the noun.

A man is any man. No particular man is meant. The article *a* shows that no particular man is meant.

35. *The* is called the Definite Article, because it points out or defines the particular member or members of the class mentioned.

The man is not any man, but a certain specified man.

The men is not any men indifferently, but certain definite men.

36. When nouns are not limited by an article, they embrace the whole class named by them.

Man embraces the whole human family. *Men* includes all men.

Birds comprehends all birds without limitation.

Iron, silver, gold mean everything consisting of those metals.

Exercises.

I. Point out the Proper Names and the Common Nouns in the list of words following.

Death, gulf, candle, Alexander, angels, repose, Macon, dream, Amazon, Mexico, shadows, tomb, face, palace, stream, Jackson, brass, coal, ashes, Pompey, Joshua, brain, Palestine, air, moisture, Potomac, Paris, lips, wall, dungeon.

32. What are the words *a*, *an*, and *the* called? 33. What are Articles? 35. What is the article *a* or *an* called? Why? Explain this. 35. What is the article *the* called? Why? Explain this by examples. 36. When nouns are used without an article, what is the extent of their application?

II. Use the Indefinite Article with the nouns

Gentleman, ear, sound, stride, smile, heart, triumph, suspicion, arm, hand, bell, hair, heir, onion, union, spider, history, bed, yell, wish, floor, eye, island, plank.

III. Use the Definite Article with the nouns

Lake, crystal, bank, rivers, angles, rocks, bridges, shore, fish, iron, canoes, precipices, fowls, tulip, odors, perfumes.

The Exercises may be varied by requiring them to be done orally in the class, or on the blackboard, or on the slate.

V.

Words which supply the place of Nouns.

37. When a thing is mentioned more than once, it is often inconvenient to repeat its name on each occasion.

It would be awkward if we were obliged to say: The sun returns every morning. The sun rises in the east. The sun ascends the sky. The sun stands at noon above our heads. The sun then descends. The sun sets in the west. The sun passes out of sight in the evening.

Instead of repeating the name of the sun so often, and multiplying sentences, we say: The sun returns every morning; *it* rises in the east; *it* ascends the sky; *it* stands at noon above our heads; *it* then descends; *it* sets in the west; and *it* passes out of sight in the evening.

The word *it* supplies the place of the noun *sun*, and refers to it.

38. A distinct class of words is employed to avoid the repetition of nouns. These words are called Pronouns.

They are called pronouns because they stand in the place of nouns, and serve the same purposes.

37. Is the repetition of the same name inconvenient? 38. How is this repetition avoided? What are the words used as substitutes called? Any?

39. A **Pronoun** is a word which supplies the place of a noun.

40. Some pronouns stand for nouns. Other pronouns stand for adjectives.

Bring wood to the fire. *It* is at the door. Here *it* supplies the place of *wood*. *It* stands for a noun.

This tree is an oak, *that* tree is a chestnut. Here *this* supplies the place of an adjective, such as *nearest*; *that*, of an adjective like *furthest*.

41. Pronouns are of two classes, according as they take the place of nouns or of adjectives.

It supplies the place of a noun. *This* supplies the place of an adjective.

42. Pronouns used in place of nouns are called Substantive-Pronouns.

It is a substantive-pronoun. It represents, or supplies the place of a noun.

43. Pronouns used in place of adjectives are called Adjective-Pronouns.

This is an adjective-pronoun. It represents an adjective.

44. The principal substantive-pronouns are called Personal Pronouns, because they distinguish between the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

I wish *you* to tell *it* to *him*. "*I*," "*you*," "*it*," "*him*" are personal pronouns.

39. What is a Pronoun? 40. Do all pronouns stand for the same class of words? Show that they do not. 41. How many classes of pronouns are there? What are they? 42. What name is given to pronouns representing nouns? 43. What are pronouns which represent adjectives called? 44. What are the principal substantive-pronouns called? Why?

"*I*" means the person speaking. "*You*" means the person spoken to. "*It*" means the thing spoken of. "*Him*" means the person spoken of.

OBS.—It is scarcely practicable to substitute nouns for the personal pronouns "*I*" and "*you*." But nouns may be easily substituted for "*it*" and "*him*." Thus we may say, "*I wish you to tell the secret to a friend.*"

45. There are three personal pronouns—the pronouns of the First, Second, and Third Persons.

46. The **Personal Pronouns** are—*I, We*, of the first person; *Thou, You*, of the second person; *He, She, It, They*, of the third person.

The first person denotes the person or persons speaking.

The second person denotes the person or persons spoken to, or addressed.

The third person denotes the person or persons, thing or things spoken of.

47. The **Adjective Pronouns** are numerous, and are divided into several classes.

1. The Possessive Pronouns; as, *my, our, thy, your, his, her, its, their*.

2. The Relative Pronouns; as, *who, which, what*.

3. The Interrogative Pronouns; as, *who, which, what*.

4. The Demonstrative Pronouns; as, *this, that, these, those*.

5. The Distributive Pronouns; as, *each, every, either*.

6. The Indefinite Pronouns; as, *some, other, any*.

Exercises.

Point out the Pronouns in the following sentences, distinguishing their kinds.

I went to see your father at his house. He had gone to a neighbor's. You found the axe before it was needed. Now give it to him. Every thing should be put in its place, that you may know where each thing is.

45. How many personal pronouns are there? What are they? 46. What are the personal pronouns? What do these pronouns respectively denote? 47. How are the adjective-pronouns divided? What are the several kinds of adjective-pronouns?

VI.

Words signifying the actions and conditions of things.

48. When anything is mentioned, it is mentioned for the sake of saying something about it.

If I say "*Stars*," no communication is made by this single word. Other words must be employed to signify what my thought is about "*stars*."

If I say, "*Stars shine*," a thought is expressed, and some information conveyed.

If I say, "*Robert*," or "*Good Robert*," another word or words must be added to tell something about "*Robert*," or to say something to him. A meaning is conveyed by saying "*Robert sleeps*," "*Speak, Robert*," "*Good Robert died*."

49. When a thing is mentioned, something is said about its actions or conditions.

When we say, "*Stars shine*," we declare that stars are characterized by shining, or that the property of shining belongs to stars.

When we say "*Robert sleeps*," or "*Robert died*," we announce the condition of Robert.

When we say "*Speak, Robert*," we command Robert to do a certain act.

50. Words which declare the acts, actions, or conditions of things are called Verbs.

In the sentences, *Boys play* ; *Birds fly* ; *Rivers flow* ; *Men die* ; *Coal burns* ; something is stated in regard to the acts, actions, or conditions of boys, birds, rivers, men, and coal. The words by which these statements are made—namely, *play*, *fly*, *flow*, *die*, *burns*—are Verbs.

51. A **Verb** is a word which expresses existence, a

48. For what purpose is anything mentioned? Explain this. 49. What is spoken about when a thing is mentioned? Illustrate this. 50. What name is given to words which declare the acts or conditions of things? 51. What is a Verb?

condition of existence, an act, or an action; as, I *am* here; I *weep*; I *run*; I *strike* a blow.

Verb signifies word. It is so called because it is the indispensable word for the expression of thought or feeling. Nouns, adjectives, articles, pronouns, without verbs, cannot express any distinct meaning. It is the verb by which this is done. No sense will be made by the other words, if the verbs are left out of the sentences.

No sense will be made by the words, I — sick; The kind lady — me. But the sense is complete in the sentences, I *was* sick; The kind lady *nursed* me.

52. There must be a verb in every complete sentence.

Words, without a verb, exhibit only some of the disconnected elements of speech. The verb combines these elements into a distinct statement.

In this sentence, "Many useful plants *grow* in the garden," the verb *grow* enables the words connected with it to express a distinct meaning, and unites them together so as to form a sentence.

OBS.—Sentences are sometimes expressed without a verb; but in such cases a verb is always understood, or implied. Thus, in the proverb, *Many men, many minds*, no verb is expressed, but a verb is implied, and must be supplied, in thought at least, before any meaning can be communicated by the words. The complete sentence might be, *Many men have many minds*.

53. Verbs are often defined to be words of Assertion or Affirmation, because they are required for every statement or declaration.

My brother *fought* throughout the war. *Fought* is a verb. It asserts or affirms what my brother did. It expresses an act performed by my brother.

54. Verbs are also called Time-Words, or Tense-Words, because they indicate the time of existence, condition, or action.

Why is a verb so called? 52. What kind of a word is required in every sentence? Give illustrations of this. 53. What are verbs often defined to be? Why? 54. What other name is also applied to verbs? Why?

Thus the time of *going* is shown by the forms of the verb in the sentences, "*I go*," "*I went*," "*I shall go*."

55. Verbs express the existence, the condition, the acts, or the actions of persons or things: they affirm, deny, ask questions, command; and they indicate the time to which reference is made.

Obs.—Wishes, imprecations, exhortations, entreaties are also made by verbs; and certain parts of verbs are also used for other purposes.

Exercises.

Point out the Verbs in the following sentences, and tell why they are verbs.

The lambs play. The sky is clear. Foxes live in holes. The child sleeps. Pigs squeal. The weather is very hot. I am thirsty. Send this box to your uncle. Grapes hang on the vines. They rested near a brook. The river rises rapidly. They saw many sights, and they heard many strange things. They will sail to-morrow. Your friends desire to meet you. The snow covers the ground. The crowd ran away, and scattered.

Name the other kinds of words in these sentences, so far as you know them.

VII.

Words denoting the character or quality of actions and of attributes.

56. Actions and attributes vary in character or quality, and in degree or amount.

A ship sails on the sea. One ship may sail *well*; another may sail *badly*; a third may sail *slowly*; a fourth may sail *very quickly*.

The words *well*, *badly*, *slowly*, *very quickly*, characterize or qualify the act of sailing asserted of the ship.

Illustrate this. 55. What services are rendered by verbs? Give examples of verbs in these various uses. 56. How may actions and attributes vary? Explain this by examples.

A lesson may be difficult; or one lesson may be *more* difficult than another; or a lesson may be *exceedingly* difficult.

"*Difficult*" is an adjective expressing the character or quality of a lesson. "*More*" and "*exceedingly*" express differences in the character or quality of the difficulty attributed to "a lesson."

OBS.—These words, *well, badly, slowly, very quickly, more, exceedingly*, express entirely different notions from those signified by nouns, adjectives, articles, pronouns, and verbs. They express the character or quality ascribed to the actions or attributes ascribed to things.

57. A special class of words is employed to limit or qualify actions and attributes.

Splendidly decorated; *brilliantly* illuminated; *sincerely* beloved; *sadly* disappointed; *very* bright; *extremely* ill.

The actions and attributes expressed by "decorated," "illuminated," "beloved," "disappointed," "bright," and "ill," are qualified by the words, "*splendidly*," "*brilliantly*," "*sincerely*," "*sadly*," "*very*," and "*extremely*."

58. Words expressing the character or quality of an action or attribute, are called Adverbs.

The words *splendidly, brilliantly, sincerely, sadly, very, extremely*, are adverbs.

59. Adverbs may be employed to limit or qualify other adverbs; as, Jenny Lind sang *marvellously well*. Your friend paints *very beautifully*.

60. Adverbs are words joined to verbs, adjectives, and to other adverbs to qualify their meaning; as, *She sings sweetly*; *she is entirely helpless*; *she rides very gracefully*.

57. How are actions and attributes limited or qualified? Exemplify this.
 58. What are words expressing the character of actions and attributes called?
 59. What other words may Adverbs qualify? Give examples. 60. What are adverbs?

Exercises.

Point out the Adverbs in the following expressions.

He looked remarkably well. The streams rose rapidly. The house was entirely open. The man was wholly unknown. The boy never saw his father. The family was in very narrow circumstances. It was strangely effected. Many persons would have acted otherwise. The alarm was certainly unreasonable.

Insert Adverbs in the following phrases.

The birds sing —. The wind blows —. The children write —. The morning is — beautiful. The rocks were — steep. The moon shines very —. The well is — deep. He — leaves home.

Form sentences containing the following Adverbs.

There, then, otherwise, rightly, frequently, sometimes, quickly, soon, justly, wisely, always, never, not, sweetly, cheerfully.

VIII.

Words signifying the relation (or direction) of one thought to another.

61. A word or phrase is often limited by the expression of its relation to something else, or by the addition of something to which its meaning is directed.

The farmer is ploughing in his field on the hill before us.

Here the phrase "*is ploughing*" is limited by expressing its relation to the farmer's own field, and the meaning of "*field*" is directed to the particular field "*on the hill*," and the meaning of "*hill*" is directed and confined to the field in sight, or "*before us*."

The words "*in*," "*on*," and "*before*" express the relations of "*ploughing*," "*field*," and "*hill*" to something else; and

Mention or write down several adverbs in connection with words qualified by them. 61. How are words and phrases often limited? Show how this takes place.

direct their meanings respectively to the words "*field*," "*hill*," and "*us*."

62. Words employed to express the relations of words to something additional, and to give direction in this way to their meaning, are called Prepositions.

"*In*," "*on*," "*before*," are prepositions.

Prepositions are so called because they are usually placed before the nouns to which the meaning is directed and confined.

The wall fell upon him. The falling of the wall was directed to "*him*." The preposition "*upon*" precedes "*him*."

OBS.—Prepositions do not always precede the nouns dependent upon them, nor are nouns always required with them; as, *It was spoken of*.

63. A **Preposition** is a word which expresses the relation or direction of the meaning to another word or thought.

Exercises.

Point out the Prepositions in the following expressions.

He went from Boston to Savannah. He was wounded in the arm. The boat is on the shore, and the ship is in the river. He regarded neither what was before him nor what was behind him. The carriage rolled down the side of the precipice. Coffee and tea are not good without sugar.

Insert Prepositions in the following sentences.

Drive the dog — the house. The regiment marched — the street. The tower stands — a hill. Much discussion has arisen — a passage — the book — Deuteronomy. Put your hat — your head. The book lies — the table. The lamp hung — his head.

Form sentences with the following Prepositions in them.

About, above, under, below, in, into, upon, within, without, through, by, to.

62. What are words expressing the relations of words to something additional called? Why are Prepositions so called? Name some prepositions. 63. What is a preposition?

IX.

Words connecting other words or statements.

54. Words and statements may be employed singly and separately, or they may be joined together so as to present compound ideas.

Instead of saying, *The dog is large ; The dog is black ;* we may say, *The dog is large and black.* Instead of *Dogs fight ; Cats fight ;* we may say, *Dogs and cats fight.*

Large and black ; Dogs and cats, are compound expressions representing compound ideas.

The dog barks and bites ; The dog will bite if you strike him. are compound statements.

In these examples, two words or two statements are connected together by the words "*and*" and "*if*."

65. Certain words are employed to join other words or statements together ; such as, *and, or, if, but, since, because.*

66. Words which connect together words, clauses, or sentences are called Conjunctions. *And, if, but, since,* are conjunctions.

67. A **Conjunction** is a word which joins words, or sentences, or parts of sentences together.

The battle was long *and* bloody. The sun, *and* the moon, *and* the stars are heavenly bodies.

The fisherman was drowned *because* he could not swim. I must believe the wonder, *since* I saw it.

OBS.—*And, but,* etc., connect words and statements together in a different manner from that in which statements are connected together by *because, since,* etc. The latter class of conjunctions indicates a relation of subordination and dependence between the propositions.

64. In what different ways may words and statements be employed? Explain this. 65. How are certain words employed? 66. What name is given to words connecting words, clauses, or sentences? 67. What is a Conjunction? Give examples of conjunctions, and of their use.

Exercises.

Point out the Conjunctions in the sentences which follow.

Henry and Fred are good boys, but Tom and Bob are not. I will either send or bring it myself. It was a kind, and generous and noble act, although it was very hazardous. I love reading, because it improves the mind. It was not the painter but the carpenter who was killed. He has done much good since he came.

Point out the other kinds of words in these sentences.

Supply Conjunctions with the following sentences.

The houses were large, — handsome, — convenient — expensive. It must be true — untrue. It must be — night — day. Chickens, — ducks, — turkeys, — geese are all birds. I told you — I could not go. He learns rapidly — he is attentive. We shall lose our chance — we do not go soon. Take care — you be hurt. I remained — he came.

Form sentences containing the Conjunctions following.

And, or, either: nor, neither: because, for, since, till, if, that, but, though, unless, lest, yet.

X.

Words used to indicate emotion or feeling.

68. Some words are employed simply for the purpose of indicating emotion; such as grief, joy, disgust, surprise, fear.

Ah! Hurrah! Ugh! Ha! Oh! Alas! are words of this kind.

68. For what purpose are some words simply employed?

69. Words simply expressive of emotion are not directly connected with any statement or sentence.

Alas! the vessel was wrecked, and my friend was drowned.

"*Alas!*" expresses the grief of the speaker, and displays his feeling, but it is not otherwise connected with the statements which follow.

70. These words may be omitted altogether, or may be introduced in any part of the sentence, because they are not directly connected with the statement made.

The vessel, *Alas!* was wrecked, and my friend was drowned.

The vessel was wrecked, *Alas!* and my friend was drowned.

The vessel was wrecked, and my friend, *Alas!* was drowned.

The vessel was wrecked, and my friend was drowned, *Alas!*

71. Words which may be introduced in any part of the sentence are called Interjections—that is, words thrown in.

Ah! Oh! Alas! are Interjections.

72. An Interjection is a word thrown into a sentence, to express some sudden emotion of the speaker.

Obs. 1.—Any word or phrase which indicates emotion, without making any statement about it, may be used as an interjection.

"*Strange! that the letter should never have reached me!*"

"*Strange!*" is here used as an interjection, and the whole phrase is used interjectionally.

69. Are words expressing emotion merely, directly connected with any statement? 70. Are such words restricted to any part of the sentence? Why not? Show this. 71. What are these words called? Why are they so called? 72. What is an Interjection?

XI.

Enumeration of the Classes of Words.

73. Nine different kinds or classes of words employed in language have now been specified.

74. These several kinds of words are :

- I. Words signifying things, usually called Nouns.
- II. Words signifying qualities or properties connected with things, commonly called Adjectives.
- III. Words determining the application or acceptance of nouns, or Articles.
- IV. Words which supply the place of nouns, or Pronouns.
- V. Words signifying the existence, condition, act, or action of things, or Verbs.
- VI. Words signifying the character or quality of actions or attributes, or Adverbs.
- VII. Words signifying the relation of one word to another, or Prepositions.
- VIII. Words which connect words, clauses, or propositions together, or Conjunctions.
- IX. Words expressing emotion simply, or Interjections.

75. These nine classes of words are called Parts of Speech, because they are the several constituent parts of all speech, and embrace all the kinds of words which compose speech.

73. How many different kinds of words have been specified? 74. What are the nine different kinds of words? and what their several characters? 75. What are these nine kinds of words called? Why?

XII.

Sentences.

76. Words combined so as to convey a distinct meaning form Sentences.

The leaves are green. Light comes from the sun.

77. Sentences are of three kinds ; simple, complex, and compound.

The night cometh, is a simple sentence.

The night cometh when no man can work, is a complex sentence.

The night succeeds the day, and the day succeeds the night, is a compound sentence.

78. A Simple Sentence makes a single statement ; as, *The summer is the season of flowers.*

79. A Complex Sentence contains two or more statements directly connected with each other—the one being limited or modified by the other ; as, *The swallows arrive, when the summer returns.*

Here are two statements, *the swallows arrive*, and *the summer returns*. They are directly connected together. The arrival of the swallows is limited in time by the return of summer.

OBS.—A complex sentence is formed by the union of two or more statements dependent upon each other, through the intervention of such conjunctions as *when, because, though, that*.

80. A Compound Sentence is a sentence composed of two or more statements not dependent on each other ; as, *The summer is pleasant, and it is adorned with flowers.*

76. What do words combined so as to convey a distinct meaning form ? 77. How many kinds of sentences are there ? What are they ? 78. What is a Simple Sentence ? Form simple sentences. 79. What is a Complex Sentence ? Give examples of complex sentences. 80. What is a Compound Sentence ? Give examples of compound sentences.

Here are two distinct statements independent of each other, which are united by the conjunction *and*.

OBS.—A compound sentence is formed by uniting two or more independent statements into one sentence by such conjunctions as *and, or, but*.

XIII.

Simple Sentences.

81. In every sentence there must be something spoken of, and something said about what is spoken of.

Birds fly. “*Birds*” are the things spoken of, and what is said of them is, that they “*fly*.”

OBS.—In the first and second persons of the verb it is not as evident as in the third that something is spoken of, and that something is said about what is spoken of. Nevertheless this is the case. In “*I speak*”—“*I*” is what is spoken of by myself; and *speaking* is what is said by me about myself. In *Go—you* is understood, and signifies the person addressed, about whom, therefore, the speech is made; and the order to “*go*,” is what is said about *you*.

82. What is spoken of is termed the **Subject** of the sentence.

In the sentences, *Birds fly, fishes swim, men walk, we travel*, the subjects of the several sentences are “*birds*,” “*fishes*,” “*men*,” “*we*.”

83. The subject of a sentence must be the designation or name of the thing spoken of.

Birds, fishes, men, we are the designations or names of the things spoken of.

84. The subject of a sentence must consist of a noun, a word supplying the place of a noun, or a pronoun, or a word or phrase used as a noun.

Birds, fishes, men are nouns. *We* is a pronoun.

81. What two things are required in every sentence? Show this by examples.
82. What is the thing spoken of called? Illustrate this. 83. What must the Subject of a sentence be? 84. Of what must the subjects of sentences consist?

In the sentences, *To die is the lot of all men*; and, *To die for the right is worthy of all praise*; the verb “*to die*” and the phrase “*to die for the right*” are employed as nouns, or are used substantively, and constitute the subjects of these sentences.

Obs.—Any word or words may be used substantively, and form the subject of a sentence; as, *Twenty* is a number; *Red* is a color; *Under* is a preposition; *To write Poe's Raven* required high genius.

85. What is said about the subject is called the Predicate.

Predicate means what is said or affirmed about any thing.

In the sentences, *Birds fly*, *fishes swim*, *men walk*, *we travel*, it is said of birds that they “*fly*,” of fishes, that they “*swim*,” of men, that they “*walk*,” of the persons represented by “*we*,” that they “*travel*.” In other words, *flying* is asserted or predicated of birds; *swimming*, of fishes; *walking*, of men; and *travelling*, of the persons denoted by “*we*.”

Obs.—When the sentence is negative, the negation denies that which would otherwise be affirmed, but does not destroy the significance of the predicate as being what is said of the subject. *Men do not fly*. “*Flying*” is here predicated of men, and then denied by the negation.

86. Every sentence consists of a subject and a predicate.

This is a consequence of the fact that a sentence is made up of something spoken of and of something said about it.

87. The predicate must be a verb, or must contain a verb.

In the sentences, *Birds fly*, and *birds are flying*; *men walk*, and *men are walking*, the predicates are verbs. The predicate consists of a verb and something else in such sentences as, *The rose smells sweet*; *The storm rages fearfully*; but the essential part of the predicate is the verb.

Obs.—The necessity of a verb in every predicate results from the fact that nothing can be said about any thing except by means of a verb, which is the part of speech required for every assertion.

Give examples. 85. What name is given to what is said about the subject? What does Predicate mean? 86. Of what two parts does every sentence consist? 87. What is required for the predicate? Show this by examples.

88. A **Simple Sentence** may now be defined to be a sentence containing a single subject and a single verb (or predicate).

89. The subject of a simple sentence does not necessarily consist of a single word.

Beautiful colors fade. *The most exquisite hues of the evening sky* disappear.

Beautiful colors and *the most exquisite hues of the evening sky* constitute the subjects of these two sentences.

OBS.—In these sentences, “*colors*” and “*hues*” are alone regarded as subjects in the grammatical construction: “*beautiful colors*” and “*the most exquisite hues of the evening sky*,” constitute the topics of discourse, determine the meaning and extent of the things spoken of, and are called the logical subjects.

90. The grammatical subject is called the nominative in the sentence, because it names what is spoken about.

The *house* took fire. *House* is the nominative in the sentence. It names what is spoken of. It is the name of the thing said to have taken fire.

91. The predicate of a simple sentence does not necessarily consist of only a single word.

The birds *are singing*. The sky *is overcast*. The rain *is pouring down*. The rose *smells sweet*. The army *crossed the river*. An eagle *flew over the village*.

“*Are singing*,” “*is overcast*,” “*is pouring down*,” “*smells sweet*,” “*crossed the river*,” “*flew over the village*,” are severally the predicates in these sentences, and each of them consists of two or more words.

OBS.—The grammatical predicate is different from the logical predicate. The grammatical predicate consists of the verb alone, either in its simple form, as *sing*, or in its continued form, as *are singing*. The logical predicate includes all that is asserted of the logical subject.

88. How may a Simple Sentence be now defined? 89. Does the subject of a simple sentence consist always of a single word? 90. What is the Grammatical Subject called? Why? 91. Does the predicate of a sentence consist always of a single word? Show this.

92. Certain verbs expressive of action require the addition of a noun or pronoun to complete the predicate, by showing on what the action takes effect.

Thus, in the sentence, *The army crossed the river*, the sense would be incomplete if we were to say, "*the army crossed*," because we require to know what the army *crossed*, or in regard to what the act of crossing was performed. To satisfy this requirement, we must add the name of the thing which is the object of the action. In this case, what was *crossed* was *the river*; and, therefore, the predicate is completed by saying, *The army crossed—the river*.

OBS.—Verbs that thus require the addition of a noun or pronoun, are called Transitive Verbs.

93. The noun or pronoun added to complete the predicate of a transitive verb is called the Object of the verb.

"*River*" is the object of the verb "*crossed*" in the sentence, *The army crossed the river*.

* **94.** A simple sentence, then, consists of one subject and one predicate; as, *Fire burns*. The subject and the predicate may each consist of one, or of several words; as, *Bees hum*; *The busy bee improves each shining hour*. The grammatical subject consists of a noun, or a pronoun, or of something equivalent and used as a noun. The logical subject includes all the words which describe the subject of discourse. The predicate always contains a verb. The grammatical predicate consists of the verb only. The logical predicate embraces whatever is said of the logical subject. The grammatical predicate sometimes requires to be

92. What do certain verbs require for the completion of the predicate? Why? Furnish an explanation of this completion of the predicate. 93. What name is given to the word which completes the predicate of a transitive verb? * 94. Give a summary account of simple sentences.

completed by the addition of a word denoting on what the action takes effect, and this word is called the object; as, *The boys broke —— the bottle.*

*** 95.** Subject or nominative, and verb or predicate, are the essential parts of every sentence.

With some verbs an object is required to complete the predicate.

The framework of every sentence is constructed with these three parts, or with the first two of them.

* XIV.

Complex Sentences.

96. A **Complex Sentence** consists of one or more simple sentences connected together so that one sentence is limited or modified by the other, or by the others.

The knowledge [that we continually trespass ourselves], should make us ready to forgive the trespasses of others.

This is a complex sentence. One sentence or proposition is, "*the knowledge should make us ready to forgive,*" etc. The other sentence or proposition by which this is modified is, "*we continually trespass ourselves.*" This modification is shown, and the two sentences are formed into one by the conjunction "*that.*"

OBS.—The forms of complex sentences are very numerous, and often very complicated.

97. In a complex sentence the leading or limited proposition is called the principal sentence or clause.

* 95. What are the essential parts of every sentence? What third part is sometimes required? * 96. What is a Complex Sentence? * 97. What is the leading proposition in a complex sentence called?

I know a bank whereon the wild thyme grows. In this sentence, the leading proposition is, "*I know a bank*," and this is called the principal sentence or clause.

98. The secondary or limiting proposition is called the subordinate sentence or clause.

I know a bank *whereon the wild thyme grows*. Here the secondary or limiting proposition is, "*whereon the wild thyme grows*." This is called the subordinate sentence or clause.

OBS.—The principal sentence does not always come first. We may say either, *I will go, if you will stay*; or, *If you will stay, I will go*.

* XV.

Compound Sentences.

99. A **Compound Sentence** is one in which two or more simple and independent sentences are joined together by means of a conjunction; as, *Man proposes, but God disposes*.

"*Man proposes*" is one simple sentence: "*God disposes*" is another simple sentence, independent of the former. The combination of the two, by means of the conjunction "*but*," forms a compound sentence.

XVI.

Conclusion.

* **100.** The general nature of words, their various kinds, and the manner in which they are combined into sentences, have been now explained briefly and simply,

* 98. What is the secondary proposition in a complex sentence called?

* 99. What is a Compound Sentence?

so as to furnish an introduction to the study of English Grammar. These are the subjects of grammar, but systematic grammar enters into many details which have been disregarded in the preceding sketch of the main characteristics of language.



Elementary English Grammar.



1. Grammar is the science of language.

Grammar teaches the nature of words, and the principles which regulate their use, as instruments for expressing the movements of the mind.

2. Grammar is either General or Special.

General Grammar discovers and explains the relations between different classes and forms of words, in accordance with the laws of the human mind, and the constitution of the organs of speech.

Special Grammar exhibits the modes in which the words of particular languages are employed to show these relations.

3. Every language has its own special grammar.

Thus there is Greek Grammar, Latin Grammar, Italian Grammar, French Grammar, English Grammar, &c.

4. English Grammar teaches the correct usage of the English Language.

5. Language is the expression of thought, feeling, etc., by means of articulate and significant sounds, or of their symbols, written words.

1. What is Grammar? 2. What are the two kinds of Grammar? 3. Has every language its own Grammar? 4. What does English Grammar teach? 5. What is Language?

6. All sounds are not articulate. All articulate sounds are not significant.

The howl of a dog, the cry of infancy, the scream of pain, are not articulate. The notes of music and of singing-birds are articulate, but they are not significant of definite thoughts and emotions.

7. Articulate sounds are sounds distinguished by the regulated movements of the organs of speech : as, *b-a-t*, bat ; *c-a-r-p-e-t*, carpet.

8. Sounds are significant when a distinct meaning is attached to them, separately or in combination.

I is a single articulate sound, separately significant in English, and denoting the person who speaks ; *I went*, *I rode*.

Eye is the same sound represented by a combination of letters, and signifies the organ of sight.

The same sound is significant, in conjunction with other sounds, in *Ice*, *Knife*, *Idle*, *Iron*, *Isle*, *Aisle*.

9. The Grammar of a language includes much more than can be included in an elementary text-book.

Obs.—The Spelling-Book and Dictionary, and habitual practice in speaking, reading, and writing, are necessary aids in acquiring a knowledge of English Grammar.

DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

10. Grammar is usually divided into four parts : Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

11. **Orthography** treats of letters, as the symbols or

6. Are all sounds articulate ? Are all articulate sounds significant ? 7. What are articulate sounds ? 8. When are sounds said to be significant ? Give examples of sounds which are both articulate and significant. 9. Is the whole of Grammar included in a text-book ? 10. How is Grammar usually divided ? What are the four parts of Grammar ? 11. What does Orthography treat of ?

representatives of articulate sounds, and of their proper employment in forming the words of the language.

12. Etymology treats of the nature of words, and of their changes.

Obs.—“Etymology is a knowledge of the changes of words,” whether the changes are due to difference of application; as, a *dog* and *to dog*: to inflection; as, a *dog's tooth*, *dogging a man's steps*: to derivation; as, *doggishly*: or to composition; as, *dog-nettle*.

13. Syntax treats of the correct mode of joining words together in the formation of sentences.

Obs.—Syntax treats of the connection of words with each other, for the expression of a distinct statement or sentence. It treats also of the connection of the parts of a sentence, and of the connection of sentences.

14. Prosody treats of the correct utterance of words and of sentences, but it is principally concerned with the rules of metrical composition, or verse.

12. What does Etymology treat of? 13. What does Syntax treat of? 14. What does Prosody treat of?



PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

THE SOUNDS AND LETTERS.

15. Articulate Sounds constitute the elements of spoken language.

16. Letters are the symbols or representatives of the several elementary sounds of the language.

They furnish the ultimate divisions or elements of written words.

17. The letters of a language, arranged in their regular order, are called its Alphabet.

OBS.—The Alphabet derives its name from the first two letters of the Greek Alphabet: *Alpha—A*, *Beta—B*.

18. The English Alphabet consists of twenty-six letters :

A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

OBS.—The initial sounds of the names of the letters give the usual sound or power of the letters, except in the case of F, L, M, N, R, S, X, whose power is represented by the final sounds ; and H, Q, W, Y, whose sound is not represented by their names.

19. Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

15. What are the elements of a language? 16. What are Letters? 17. What is the list of the letters of a language called? 18. How many letters does the English Alphabet contain? What are they? 19. How are the letters divided?

20. A **Vowel** is a sound that can be perfectly uttered by itself.

21. A **Consonant** is a sound incapable of perfect utterance without the aid of a Vowel.

OBS.—A Consonant (*con-sonans*, sounding together), is so called in consequence of requiring the help of a vowel for its complete utterance.

22. The Vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y* at the end of words and syllables.

OBS.—It seems most correct to regard *w* and *y* as always vowels.

23. All the other letters are Consonants.

24. Consonants are divided into Mutes and Semi-Vowels.

25. The **Mutes** cannot be sounded at all without the aid of a vowel.

They are *b, p, d, t, k*, and *c* and *g* hard.

26. The **Semi-Vowels** have an imperfect sound by themselves.

They are *f, l, m, n, r, s, v, z, x*, and *c* and *g* soft.

27. Four of the Semi-Vowels, *l, m, n, v*, are also called Liquids from their flowing sounds.

28. When two vowels unite in one sound, they form a Diphthong; as, *oi* in *oil*, *ou* in *house*, *ea* in *meat*, *ee* in *feet*.

29. When three vowels are so united, they form a Triphthong; as, *iew* in *view*.

20. What is a Vowel? 21. What is a Consonant? 22. What letters are vowels? 23. What letters are consonants? 24. How are consonants divided? 25. What are Mutes? What letters are mutes? 26. What are Semi-Vowels? What letters are semi-vowels? 27. What consonants are called Liquids? 28. What is a Diphthong? Mention words in which diphthongs occur. 29. What is a Triphthong? Give examples of words containing triphthongs.

30. Diphthongs are divided into Proper and Improper.

A Proper Diphthong has both vowels sounded; as *oi* in *voice*.

An Improper Diphthong has only one of the vowels sounded; as, *ea* in *eat*, *great*.

31. The Triphthongs in English never have all the vowels sounded.

Obs.—Triphthongs scarcely occur except in words derived from foreign languages.

* CAPITALS AND SMALL LETTERS.

32. Two series or sets of letters are employed in the English language—an alphabet of large characters and an alphabet of small characters.

These differ from each other in size, and generally in shape.

33. The large characters are called Capitals. They are ordinarily used only at the commencement of words or of the parts of compound words; as, *Dog, Cat, Arch-Duke*.

34. The body of words consists always of small letters, when both characters are used.

35. All the important cases in which Capitals should be used, in English, are embraced by the following rules:

RULE I.—A Capital letter should be used at the beginning of every sentence.

* Divisions and sections marked by an asterisk * may be omitted the first time that this Grammar is studied

30. How are Diphthongs divided? What is a Proper, and what an Improper Diphthong? 31. Have any Triphthongs, in English, all the vowels sounded? 32. What two series of letters are employed in English? How do they differ? 33. What are the large characters called? When are they ordinarily used? 34. What letters are used for the body of words? 35. Give the First Rule for the use of Capitals.

RULE II.—A Capital should be used at the beginning of every verse or line of poetry.

RULE III.—A Capital should commence every proper name, and the adjectives derived from such names; as, *Julius Cæsar was a Roman.*

RULE IV.—A Capital should commence all names of the Deity, all attributes ascribed to Him, and all personal and possessive pronouns referring to Him; as, *The Lord of Lords, the Most High God, He is the Almighty Ruler.*

RULE V.—A Capital should begin all titles, and all names of office or dignity used as titles; as, *Duke, Baron, President, King, Captain, Chancellor, Judge.*

RULE VI.—When common nouns are personified, or used as if they were names of persons, they require Capitals; as, "*Red Battle stamps his foot.*"

RULE VII.—When words are designed to be peculiarly prominent, they may be written with Capitals, in any part of a sentence.

OBS.—This rule applies to the Titles of Books, to important words in Deeds and Public Documents, to Inscriptions, to Bills of all sorts, etc.

RULE VIII.—The Pronoun *I* and the Interjection *O* are always written with Capitals.

RULE IX.—When a proper name or a title consists of two or more words, written separately or joined with a hyphen, each of the words properly begins with a Capital; as, *George Washington, New Orleans, Major-General.*

RULE X.—The names of the Sciences, and many

Give the Second Rule. Give the Third Rule. Give the Fourth Rule. What is the Fifth Rule? What is the Sixth Rule? Repeat the Seventh Rule. Repeat the Eighth Rule. State the Ninth Rule. State the Tenth Rule.

technical terms of Science and of Art, are written with Capitals ; as, *Astronomy, Medicine, Electrometer.*

Correct the misuse of Capitals and small letters in the following examples.

“it was a Contest, not so much between the catholic religion and the protestant Religion, as between catholic Laymen and Protestant clergy.”

“during the whole Summer the brest fleet had been closely Blockaded by admiral sir edward Hawke, while some Frigates under captain duff cruised along the Coast to the southward, from the port of orient to the sands of olonne.”

“The royal speech had been drawn up by lord hardwicke, and revised by pitt ; but when complete, his majesty added with his own hand, a Paragraph.”

“The Course of divine providence in the Government of the world, is represented in scripture under the twofold Aspect of general Law and special interposition.

“an ironical Criticism on the pastorals in the guardian, which took in steele, was followed long afterwards by the unsparing Ridicule of the treatise on the art of sinking in poetry.”

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

36. A **Syllable** is a distinct sound, composed of one or more sounds, produced by a single impulse of the voice ; as, *a, an, ant ; I, inn, inch.*

There must be one vowel at least in every syllable.

OBS.—In written language, a syllable consists of the letters which represent the sounds in the spoken words.

37. A **Word** is a syllable, or a combination of syllables, used as the sign of an idea ; as, *a, man, can-not, be, om-nis-ci-ent.*

36. What is a Syllable ? What kind of letter is required in every syllable ?
37. What is a Word ?

38. Words consisting of a single syllable are called *Monosyllables*; of two syllables, *Dissyllables*; of three syllables, *Trisyllables*; of more than three syllables, *Polysyllables*.

Ox, *good*, *house*, are monosyllables.

Ox-en, *bet-ter*, *hous-es*, are dissyllables.

Gar-den-er, *con-stan-cy*, *mem-o-ry*, are trisyllables.

Mag-nif-i-cence, *in-de-struc-ti-bil-i-ty*, are polysyllables.

39. Words are divided into Simple and Compound.

Simple words are those which cannot be separated into other words; as, *house*, *honest*.

Compound words are those which may be separated into other words; as, *whirl-wind*, *thunder-cloud*, *after-noon*.

40. Words are divided into syllables by distributing them into the parts which are pronounced by separate impulses of the voice; thus, *mag-nan-im-i-ty*.

41. Monosyllables should never be divided.

42. Compound words should be divided into the simple words which compose them; as, *book-case*, *sea-shore*.

Prefixes and terminations should be distinguished from the words with which they are conjoined; as, *brim-ful*, *game-some*, *wit-ness*, *in-tru-sion*.

OBS.—The terminations *cial*, *cian*, *cious*, *sion*, *tion*, *tial*, *tious*, should not be divided, because each is pronounced by a single effort of the voice.

43. Two vowels, coming together and not forming one sound, should be placed in distinct syllables; as, *cru-el*, *po-et*, *de-ni-al*.

38. What are words of one syllable called?—of two syllables?—of three syllables?—of more than two syllables? Give examples of each kind. 39. How are words divided? What are Simple Words? What are Compound Words? 40. How are words divided into syllables? 41. Should monosyllables be divided? 42. How should Compound Words be divided? 43. How are two vowels coming together treated?

44. A single consonant between two vowels, occurring in distinct syllables, is usually joined to the second syllable ; as, *de-light*, *bri-dal*.

Obs.—There are many exceptions to this rule ; but the general principle is, that syllables should, if possible, begin with a consonant.

45. Two consonants following a long vowel should be joined to the second syllable, if they may together begin a word ; as, *ta-ble*, *sti-fle*.

But if they follow a short vowel, or cannot begin a word, they should be divided between the two syllables ; as, *tab-let*, *un-der*, *el-bow*, *cof-fin*.

46. When three consonants come together, they should not be separated, if they can begin a word, and follow a long vowel ; as, *de-throne*, *de-stroy*.

47. Words of more than one syllable may be divided, in writing or in printing, at the end of a line ; but a syllable should not be divided.

Obs.—It is not advisable to divide a word in this way when a single syllable, consisting of a single letter, either terminates one line or commences the other. Thus, *i-deality*, *miser-y*, should not be divided in this manner between two lines.

44. With what syllable should a single consonant between two vowels be joined ? 45. How are two consonants coming together in the middle of a sentence arranged ? When should they be divided between the two syllables ? 46. What is the distribution of three consonants coming together ? 47. How may words be divided between two lines.



PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

48. Etymology is divided into three parts : Classification, Inflection, and Derivation.

I. Classification treats of the different kinds of words.

II. Inflection treats of the changes which certain classes of words undergo in order to express different relations of their meaning.

III. Derivation treats of the modes in which words are formed.

49. The structure of a sentence shows why words are of different kinds, and why some words are changed in form to express changed relations of their meaning.

50. A Sentence expresses a distinct thought, and always consists of at least two parts ; as, *snow falls ; the sun—is shining ; the shoe—pinches my foot.*

51. The two parts which are essential in every sentence, are called the Subject and the Predicate.

In this sentence, *snow falls*, *snow* is the Subject, and *falls* is the Predicate.

52. The **Subject** of a sentence is what is spoken about.

I—write ; come—(you) ; stars—shine. I, you, and stars are Subjects.

48. How is Etymology divided ? 49. What does the structure of a sentence show ? 50. What does a sentence express ? How many parts must every sentence contain ? 51. What are the two essential parts in every sentence called ? 52. What is the Subject of a sentence ?

53. The **Predicate** of a sentence is what is said about the Subject.

Write, come, and shine are the Predicates of the sentences *I write ; come (you) ; stars shine.*

54. The Subject and the Predicate are expressed by different kinds of words.

The Subject is expressed by a word which names what is spoken of. This word is called a noun. § 69.

The Predicate is always expressed by a word declaring existence, either simply or under some condition ; as, *fishes swim*. Here *swim* is the Predicate. *Swim* is a verb. § 73.

55. The Predicate is sometimes expressed by a single word ; as, *falls*, in the sentence *snow falls* ; sometimes by two words ; as, *is falling*, in *snow—is falling* ; sometimes by more words than two ; as, *pinches my foot*, in *the shoe—pinches my foot*.

56. The Predicate often requires the addition of a word or phrase to name what is acted on. This word or phrase is called the Object.

Thus, *heat melts—wax*.

The statement or sentence is incomplete till the thing is named which is melted by *heat*. *Wax* is the Object. It is the thing acted on by *heat*. It completes the Predicate *melts*.

57. The Predicate may be further enlarged by words explaining the manner of the action ; as, *Fire melts wax rapidly*.

Rapidly is a word of different kind from *fire*, or *wax*, or *melts*. *Rapidly* is an adverb. § 74.

53. What is the Predicate of a sentence ? 54. Are the Subject and the Predicate expressed by words of the same kind ? By what kind of word is the Subject expressed ? By what kind the Predicate ? 55. How many words are required for the Predicate ? 56. What does the Predicate often require to complete it ? What is this word called ? 57. How may the Predicate be further enlarged ?

58. The Subject and the Object, or either of them, may be enlarged by having their attributes expressed ; as, *Great heat melts hard iron.*

Great and *hard* express attributes of *heat* and *iron*, and are words of a different kind from *heat*, or *iron*, or *melts*. *Great* and *hard* are called adjectives. § 71.

59. Instead of naming the Subject or the Object of a sentence, another word may be used in the place of the name ; as, *Fire is hot. It melts wax.* Here *it* stands for *fire*.

It is one of a class of words called pronouns. § 72.

60. The Subject and the Object of a sentence, or either of them, may be qualified by the mention of the relation in which they stand to something else ; as, *The carpenter's axe cut off the dog's foot.*

Carpenter's indicates the possessor of the *axe* ; *dog's* the owner of the *foot*.

Carpenter's and *dog's* are inflections of the words *carpenter* and *dog*. §§ 162, 192.

61. The kinds of words and the forms of words are thus varied according to the use which is made of them in the construction of sentences.

Exercises.

Point out the Subjects and the Predicates in the following sentences.

Ships sail. Winds blow. Babies cry. Hens cluck. The vessel was wrecked. The breakers dashed upon the shore. I have lost my new umbrella. The blacksmith mended the plough. The boys learnt their lessons. The man's arm was cut off. The farmer ploughed the land. We walked slowly. The warm weather expanded the buds.

58. How may the Subject and the Object be enlarged ? 59. May a different kind of word be used in place of the Subject or of the Object ? 60. How may the Subject or the Object be qualified ? What is this change of form called ? 61. How are the kinds and forms of words varied ?

Part I.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

62. There are nine different kinds of words, or Parts of Speech, in English.

63. The **Parts of Speech** in English are : the Article ; the [Noun-Substantive, Substantive, or] Noun ; the [Noun-Adjective, or] Adjective ; the Pronoun ; the Verb ; the Adverb ; the Preposition ; the Conjunction ; and the Interjection.

64. Of these nine parts of speech, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, and, in some instances, the Adverb, are inflected in English.

The Article, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection receive no inflection.

65. These parts of speech may be arranged under three general heads—Nouns, Verbs, and Particles.

In this division, the Noun includes the Noun, the Article, and the Pronoun.

The Verb, including the Participle, forms a class by itself.

The Particles embrace the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

66. The Noun and the Verb constitute the essential parts of speech, because no sentence can be complete without them ; and they are sufficient by themselves to form a sentence ; as, *dogs bark ; children play.*

62. How many Parts of Speech are there in English ? 63. What are the several parts of speech in English ? 64. What parts of speech are inflected ? and what are uninflected ? 65. Under what general head may all the parts of speech be arranged ? How are the parts of speech distributed in this division ? 66. Which are the essential parts of speech ? and why ?

The Noun furnishes the Subject of a sentence ; the Verb furnishes the Predicate.

OBS.—A pronoun may take the place of the noun ; as, *I will ; you saw it.*

67. The other parts of speech are secondary, as sentences cannot be made with them alone, and as they are significant only by their connection with nouns and verbs.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

68. An **Article** is a word put before a noun to limit its signification ; as, *a man, the man ; an ox, the oxen.*

A, an, and the are Articles.

69. A **Noun** is the name of any thing.

The Noun properly includes the Noun-Substantive and the Noun-Adjective.

70. A Noun is the name of a thing conceived to have an independent existence ; as, *bird, sea, forest, sun, virtue.*

OBS.—A Noun may be the name of material things ; as, *sun, sugar, ice* ; or of things not material ; as, *gentleness, truth.*

71. An **Adjective** is a word joined to a Noun, to name some quality or property ascribed to it ; as, *good, green, young ; a good man, green grass, young lambs.*

72. A **Pronoun** is a word used in the place of a noun ; as, *I, you, their ; this, that, those.*

OBS.—Pronouns are either Substantive or Adjective, and serve as substitutes for Nouns-Substantive or Nouns-Adjective.

67. Which are the secondary parts of speech ? and why ? 68. What is an Article ? 69. What is a Noun ? 70. What is a Noun the name of ? Write down a list of such words. 71. What is an Adjective ? Write down a list of adjectives. 72. What is a pronoun ? Give examples of pronouns.

73. A **Verb** is a word which denotes being, a condition of being, or action ; as, *I am, I sleep, I move, I build ; I am struck.*

74. An **Adverb** is a word joined to a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb, to express some qualification of the word to which it is joined ; as, *He speaks well ; a very warm day ; she recovered very rapidly.*

75. A **Preposition** is a word used before Nouns and Pronouns to indicate their relations to other words in the sentence ; as, *The sailor fell from the masthead.* Here *from* shows that *the masthead* was the place whence the *falling* commenced.

76. A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, phrases, clauses, and sentences together ; as, *She is fair, and young, and good ; Tom and Bob rode on horseback, but were both tired by the ride.*

In these examples, the Adjectives *fair, young, good,* are connected together by the conjunction *and* ; so are the nouns *Tom* and *Bob.* The sentences or parts of sentences, *rode on horseback,* and *were tired by the ride,* are connected together by the conjunction *but.*

In the conditional proposition, *It will rain, if the wind changes,* the sentences *it will rain* and *the wind changes,* are joined together by the conjunction *if.*

77. An **Interjection** is a word which expresses some sudden emotion of the speaker : as, *Oh ! Ah ! Alas ! Lo ! he cometh. Hush ! bonny babe, hush ! and be still.*

73. What is a Verb ? Mention several verbs. 74. What is an Adverb ? Give examples of adverbs. 75. What is a Preposition ? Name some prepositions. 76. What is a Conjunction ? Supply examples of conjunctions. 77. What is an Interjection ? Name some interjections.

* **Exercises.**

Point out the Parts of Speech in the following expressions :

A warm day. Beautiful pictures. I found my hat. This is it. Oh! I have cut my finger. Our cousins have gone away, and they will not come back soon. Bright colors charm savages. A lion. An ape. The swallows. Green fields. The cool breezes. Your friends. They left our house before day. Yellow, and red, and blue, and purple hyacinths. Put them on the table. Alas! they will fade rapidly. That is my slate. You are very late. I am here. The nest fell down, but the eggs were not broken. Birds of passage come from a distance.

THE ARTICLES.

78. The **Articles** are *a* or *an*, and *the*.

A or *an* is called the Indefinite Article. *The* is called the Definite Article.

79. The **Indefinite Article** *a* or *an* is used when an individual of a class is spoken of, without any particular member being alluded to ; as, *a house, a garden*.

80. The **Definite Article** *the* is used, when a particular individual or particular individuals are spoken of ; as, *the house, the garden*.

A house means any house ; *the house*, some particular house : *a garden* signifies any garden, without distinction ; *the gardens* points out certain particular gardens.

Obs.—The Definite Article is used before a noun denoting a species composed of individuals ; as, *The elephant is a sagacious animal*.

It is not used before nouns signifying a whole species not made up of individuals ; as, *Bread is the staff of life ; Lead is a heavy metal*.

78. What are the Articles? What are they called respectively? 79. When is the Indefinite Article used? 80. When is the Definite Article used?

81. The Indefinite Article *a* or *an* is used only with nouns signifying a single thing; as, *a churn, an ox, a basket*.

OBS.—It is used with nouns of multitude; as, *a crowd, a host, an army, a score, a hundred*; and also before the adjectives *few* and *many* followed by plural nouns; as, *A few books; a great many men*.

82. The Definite Article *the* is used with nouns signifying either a single thing or several things; as, *the tree, the trees*.

83. *A* is used before all consonants except silent *h*, before long *u*, and before *w* and *y*; as, *a cow, a hat, a unit, a ewe, a week, a year*.

An is used before all other vowels, and before silent *h*; as, *an ant, an eye, an inch, an ounce, an onion, an urn, an hour*.

An is also used before polysyllables beginning with *h* aspirate (or sounded), when the accent falls on the second syllable, unless *h* precedes the long sound of *u*. Thus we say, *an historical treatise*, but *a humiliating fact*.

The Article *a* or *an* was originally the numeral *one*, and is still sometimes so used; as, *a dollar an ounce*.

Exercises.

Prefix the Indefinite Article to the following nouns :

Bird, horse, aunt, uncle, watch, youth, river, hoof, history, art, heir, hand, hair, herb, union, orange, lemon, ear, church, stick, yard, hen.

Correct the following errors :

An history, a honor, a ant, an wish, an nag, a animal, an ewe, a artist, an year, a heiress, an university, an knight, a idiom, an lady, an unit, a hysterical attack, an hypocrite.

81. With what kind of words is the Indefinite Article used? 82. With what kind of words is the Definite Article used? 83. When should *a*, and when should *an* be employed.

THE NOUN.

84. A Noun is the name of a thing; as, *bird, sea, forest, etc.*

OBS. 1.—Any word, belonging to any part of speech, becomes a noun when used as the name of a distinct thing; as, *Writes* is a verb. *Writes* is here a noun, because used to name a particular word.

OBS. 2.—Noun-Substantive is the most correct; Substantive the most convenient; and Noun the most familiar and inaccurate designation of this part of speech.

85. Nouns are divided into two principal classes, Proper and Common.

86. Proper Nouns, commonly called Proper Names, are such as name individuals, as, *Richard, Napoleon, London.*

OBS.—Proper nouns may become Common when they signify more individuals than one, or are employed to represent a class; as, *The Bacons, the Galileos, and the Newtons; He is a Solomon.*

Yet such words are better regarded as still proper names when they denote a race, a dynasty, or a family; as, *The Jews, the Cæsars, the Plantagenets.*

87. Common Nouns denote a class of things, and may be applied to any member of the class; as, *man, dog, state, city, sheep, bread.*

OBS.—Common nouns become proper nouns, or parts of proper names, by being used as names of individuals; as, *Charleston Harbor, Harper's Ferry, Mobile Bay.*

88. Common nouns are divided into Concrete, Abstract, Collective, and Verbal.

OBS.—Other divisions and subdivisions of nouns have been proposed, but it is inexpedient to consider them particularly here.

84. What is a Noun-Substantive? What is it usually called? 85. What are the two principal classes of Nouns? 86. What is a Proper Noun? Give examples of proper nouns. 87. What is a Common Noun? Give examples of common nouns. 88. How are common nouns divided?

89. Concrete Nouns signify things having an actual existence, or being supposed to have it; as, *hand, sky, brass, unicorn*.

OBS.—Such words as *iron, brass, corn, wheat, cotton* are called Material Nouns.

90. Abstract Nouns are the names of qualities and properties considered apart from the things in which they exist; as, *knowledge, goodness, density, virtue*.

OBS.—Words of this kind do not express separate existences, but only abstractions framed by the mind from the consideration of the existences which they characterize. They are expressed as attributes of the things to which they belong, by employing adjectives or participials; as, *a good writer, a dense thicket, a virtuous ruler, a knowing politician*. When the attributes are considered apart from the things in which they exist, they receive names and form Abstract Nouns.

91. Collective Nouns, or Nouns of Multitude, denote many individuals regarded as forming one whole or aggregate; as, *a crowd, a regiment, a fleet*.

OBS. 1.—The things signified by collective nouns exist only through the existence of their constituent parts. They have a real existence, but it is derived from the conjunction of the separate existences of which they are composed. They always involve, therefore, the notion of plurality.

OBS. 2.—Collective nouns have a singular signification, when the union of the parts constituting the conception is the predominant thought. In this proposition, *The regiment was scattered*, the union of the soldiers in one body, and the destruction of that union, are the topics most forcibly presented to the mind. The singular signification, therefore, prevails. In the sentence, *The crew were mutinous*, the rebellions and lawless conduct of the several members of the crew attracts attention, and a plural sense predominates.

92. Verbal Nouns are those which are formed by employing certain parts of the verb as names or nouns; as, *Learning is more precious than gold; he went to see his betrothed; to err is human, to forgive, divine*.

OBS. 1.—The Infinitive is used in all languages as a noun, for it conveys simply the notion contained in the verb, and gives a name to it.

89. What are Concrete Nouns? Mention several concrete nouns. 90. What are Abstract Nouns? Specify some abstract nouns. 91. What are Collective Nouns? Name some collective nouns. 92. What are Verbal Nouns? Give examples of such nouns.

OBS. 2.—Verbal nouns, in the form of the Present Participle, are not really participles, or were not so originally. They were true nouns, formed from the verb by adding the termination *-ung*, which was afterwards changed into *-ing*.

93. Diminutives and Augmentatives belong, for the most part, to the class of Concrete Nouns.

OBS. 1.—Diminutives are not numerous in the English language, and augmentatives are extremely rare.

OBS. 2.—These kinds of nouns are of little grammatical importance in English, except in relation to the forms which they assume with respect to the primitive words from which they are derived.

94. Diminutives are words expressing by their forms some diminution of the ideas denoted by the words from which they are formed; as, *stream*, *stream-let*; *river*, *rivu-let*; *dear*, *dar-ling*; *man*, *man-nikin*.

OBS. 1.—Diminutives frequently indicate grace, neatness, tenderness, or affection; as, *fond*, *fond-ling*; *Ellen*, *Nell-y*.

OBS. 2.—Diminutives sometimes imply contempt; as, *king*, *king-let*; *lord*, *lord-ling*.

95. Augmentatives are words which denote increase or excess of what is named by the simple words from which they are derived; as, *frog*, *bull-frog*.

OBS.—*Bull-frog* is a very unsatisfactory example of an augmentative, because it is a compound word. But there are scarcely any pure and indubitable augmentatives in English. The nearest approach to such words is furnished by a few terms ending in *ard* or *art*, such as *drunk-ard*, *lag-gard*, *brag-gart*.

Exercises.

Point out the Nouns in the following phrases and sentences.

A white rose; a bright day; a cloudless sky; wild beasts
bad weather; running waters; the wind is high; the way is
long; the fire burns; the axe is dull. Piety and virtue are
the noblest accomplishments; the kittens frolic; bacon is
made from hogs; the fields are green; great wealth; much
prudence; many cares.

93. To what class of nouns do Diminutives and Augmentatives belong?
94. What are diminutives? 95. What are augmentatives?

Tell to which division of nouns each of the following words belongs.

Roanoke, regiment, William the Conqueror, kingdom, America, man, tree, Byron, duckling, stream, eyelet, gold, people, mob, gladness, John, iron, poplar, Susan, beauty, wagon, paper, strength, knife, fork, wisdom, army, writing, book, reading, congregation, sheep, sleep.

THE ADJECTIVE.

96. An Adjective is a word which expresses some quality, property, or attribute of a noun; as, *a fine house*, where the quality of excellence, *fineness*, is ascribed to a *house*.

OBS. 1.—An adjective has no meaning alone. It always denotes something supposed to exist in an object. It cannot be used without a noun, expressed or understood.

OBS. 2.—In such expressions as *The rose smells sweet*, which has a different meaning from *the rose smells sweetly*, the adjective *sweet* qualifies the noun or name implied in the predicate *smells*, and is equivalent to *the rose has a sweet smell*.

OBS. 3.—Adjectives readily become nouns, and change the part of speech to which they belong; as, *The merchant's goods*; *the evils of delay*.

This results from the employment of words signifying qualities, for the things in which the qualities reside.

Adjectives are also used as nouns in consequence of the suppression of the nouns to which they refer; as, *Green is pleasing to the eye*; namely, *a green color*.

OBS. 4.—Nouns are often used adjectively in English; as, *A gold ring, a stone jar*. Nouns so used frequently unite with the nouns qualified by them, being first joined with a hyphen, and afterwards forming compound words; as, *an iron bowl, iron-mould, an ironmonger*.

OBS. 5.—Adjectives qualify nouns in two diverse modes; as, *A strong horse*; *the horse is strong*. In the former case, the adjective is used attributively, to express a quality recognized in the horse. In the latter case it is used predicatively, to ascribe the quality of strength to the horse. An adjective, therefore, may be employed either as an attribute or as a part of a predicate.

97. Adjectives may be divided into two classes—adjectives denoting quality, and adjectives denoting

96. What is an Adjective? 97. Into what classes may adjectives be divided?

number or order; as, *good, bad; two, three, four; second, third.*

Adjectives denoting quality are called simply Adjectives.

Adjectives denoting number or order are called Numerals.

They often assume the character of pronouns.

98. Adjectives usually have Abstract Nouns corresponding to them; as, *strong, strength; wise, wisdom; just, justice; prudent, prudence.*

Such abstract nouns are usually formed from the adjectives.

OBS.—The adjective expresses a quality attached to an object. This quality requires a name. The quality is an ideal, though not separate existence. The name of the quality is a noun—an abstract noun.

Exercises.

Point out the Adjectives in the following phrases and sentences.

A bright morning. A sweet nosegay. The wind is cold. Noble actions and deeds unjust and cruel. A dreary winter. The ground feels soft. The cheerful fire. An old hat and a new coat. Crude iron. Iron ore. The Duke's splendid mansion. A quarrelsome boy. Little lambs. A quiet disposition. Studious habits. An affectionate heart. We received an agreeable surprise.

Join appropriate Adjectives with the following nouns.

A — wall, the — army, — mountains, — brooks, — fields, — pens, — tools, a — journey, a — spectacle, a — life, the — sky, the — waves, a — river, — industry, — knowledge, — silver, — food, — aims, a — ambition, — sleep, — death, — talents.

What are they respectively termed? 98. What kind of nouns correspond to adjectives?

NUMERALS.

99. Numeral Adjectives are adjectives employed to designate relations of number; such as, *one, two, three; first, second, third; double, triple, quadruple*.

OBS.—The peculiarity which distinguishes numeral from other adjectives is, that they do not denote qualities or properties inherent in things signified by nouns, but only certain separable accidents of number, resulting from the aggregation of things, from the order in which they are arranged, and from the relation of their parts or of their combinations. Hence, numeral adjectives, unlike other adjectives, may be used absolutely, and stand alone, without reference to any particular noun understood, as in arithmetical calculations.

100. The numeral adjectives may be divided into four classes—Cardinal, Ordinal, Multiplicative, and Distributive; as, *one, two; first, second; simple, double; bi-partite, tri-par'ite*.

101. The **Cardinal Numerals** denote number alone, without referring to the order of succession; as, *Ten men; ninety sheep; a thousand feet*.

The Cardinal Numerals are :

One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve.

Thirteen (= three + ten); fourteen (= four + ten); etc.

Twenty (= twain-ty, or two tens); thirty (= three-ty, thretty, or three tens); etc.

Hundred, thousand, million, etc. These are usually nouns.

102. The **Ordinal Numerals** denote the order in which things occur, with relation to the number of like things which have preceded them; as, *The fourth man; the tenth sheaf; the hundredth link*.

The Ordinal Numerals are :

First, second, third;

99. What are Numeral Adjectives? 100. Into what classes may numeral adjectives be divided? 101. What do the Cardinal Numerals denote? Name cardinal numbers. 102. What do the Ordinal Numerals denote?

Fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, etc. ;

Twentieth, thirtieth, fortieth, etc. ;

Hundredth, Thousandth, Millionth, etc., used also as nouns.

OBS.—In speaking of the precedence of more than one thing, the arrangement of the Ordinal should be attended to, so as to avoid incorrectness or ambiguity. We should say, *the first two* or *the first three boys* in a class ; not *the two first*, nor *the three first*. *The first two* and *the first three* mean that two and three boys respectively are taken as an aggregate or unit, and are said to be superior to all the other boys in the class. *The two first* and *the three first* would signify that there were *two* or *three boys*, who were all *first*. We may say, however, *the two first men in the Whig and Democratic Parties*, because this denotes only a single first man in each. So, *our two first parents*.

103. The Multiplicative Numerals denote the number of times that a thing is increased or multiplied ; as, *twofold*, *double*.

OBS.—There are two forms of multiplicative numerals.

One form is derived from the English cardinal numbers by adding the termination *fold* ; as, *two-fold*, *three-fold*, *four-fold*.

The other form, exactly equivalent, is derived from the Latin ; as, *double*, *triple*, or *treble*, *quadruple*, *quintuple*, etc.

104. The Distributive Numerals denote the distribution of an aggregate into distinct numerical parts ; as, *single*, *bi-partite*, *tri-partite*, etc.

OBS. 1.—The distributive numerals are often expressed by the cardinal numbers used substantively, after a preposition ; as, *by twos*, *by threes*, *by fours* ; *two by two*, *three by three* ; also *two and two*.

OBS. 2.—*Binary*, *ternary*, *quaternary*, *quinary* appear to be distributives.

Trine, *quartile*, *sextile* may also be regarded in the same light, unless a class of partitives is distinguished from the distributives.

105. There are several other numerals which are not classified under distinct heads.

OBS. 1.—*Primary*, *secondary*, *tertiary* are not simply ordinals, for they imply precedence in dignity or rank, as well as in order.

OBS. 2.—There are many numeral forms belonging to other parts of speech which may be noticed here.

Half, *quarter* (*quartern*), *quart*, *tithe*, are partitive or fractional, and are employed both as nouns and adjectives.

To halve, *to quarter*, *to tithe*, *to decimate*, are distributive verbs.

Unity, *singleness*, *duality*, *trinity*, *quaternity*, are distributive nouns.

Name Ordinal Numbers. 103. What do the Multiplicative Numerals denote ? Mention multiplicatives. 104. What do the Distributive Numerals denote ? Specify distributives. 105. Are there any other numerals than the kinds specified ?

Simplicity, duplicity, triplicity, multiplicity, are Multiplicative Nouns.

To double, to treble, to quadruple, are Multiplicative Verbs.

There are Ordinal, Distributive, and Multiplicative Adverbs.

Ordinal Adverbs—*First* (or *firstly*), *secondly*, *thirdly*, *fourthly*.
Primarily, secondarily.

Distributive Adverbs—*Singly, quarterly, (daily, weekly, monthly, yearly).*

Multiplicative Adverbs—*Simply, doubly, trebly.*
Once, twice, thrice, (four times).

Exercises.

Point out the Numerals in the following examples, and distinguish them according to their kinds.

There are sixty minutes in one hour, and twenty-four hours in one day. There were a hundred and twenty-five guns on the fortifications. This is the twenty-seventh day of March. January is the first, February the second, and March the third month of the twelve. A triple cord is not easily broken. This is a double blanket. Grammar is quadripartite, or is divided into four parts. There is only a single page lost.

Then taking thrice three hairs from off her head,
Them trebly braided in a threefold lace.

If every tenth sheep be taken out of a flock of one hundred sheep, nine-tenths, or ninety sheep will be left.

PRONOUNS.

106. A Pronoun is a word used in the place of a noun.

Obs.—The common definition, that a pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, is inaccurate. It is scarcely possible to substitute a noun for the personal pronoun of the first or second person, for the interrogative, or for the relative pronouns. But a pronoun always occupies the place, and receives the construction of a noun, either substantive or adjective.

107. Pronouns are either Substantive or Adjective Pronouns; as, *he, they; these, those.*

106. What is a Pronoun? 107. What are the two kinds of pronouns?

108. The substantive pronouns are called Personal Pronouns.

109. The **Personal Pronouns** denote Person.

Person is the relation of the subject to the predicate, according as the latter is applied to the speaker, to something spoken to, or to something spoken of; as, *I speak, speak you, he speaks.*

OBS.—It seems almost impracticable to give a clear and distinct definition of the term *person*; but, a knowledge of the application of the word is readily acquired by attending to the significance of the personal pronouns.

110. There are three personal pronouns; namely, the pronouns of the First, Second, and Third Persons.

They are *I* and *we*, for the first person; *thou* and *you*, for the second person; and *he, she, it, they*, for the third person.

111. The first person denotes the speaker; the second person denotes the person spoken to; and the third person denotes what is spoken of; as, *I went; will you go? she has gone.*

OBS. 1.—To the personal pronouns may be added the indefinite or indeterminate pronoun, *One*; as, *One looks foolish, when one does such things.*

OBS. 2.—*Self* is also used in composition with the personal and possessive pronouns to form a reflexive pronoun; as, *myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.* *Self* was originally a noun. Its substantive character still appears when it is united with *own*; as, *my own self.*

112. The **Adjective Pronouns** are divided into Possessive, Relative, Interrogative, Demonstrative, Distributive, and Indefinite.

OBS.—The interrogative pronouns are, for the most part, identical in form with the relatives; and have been well characterized as “Relatives in search of an Antecedent.”

108. What are the Substantive Pronouns called? 109. What do the Personal Pronouns denote? What is meant by Person? 110. How many personal pronouns are there? and what are they? 111. What does the first person denote? What the second? What the third? 112. How are the Adjective Pronouns divided?

113. Possessive Pronouns express ownership or possession, with relation to the things designated by the nouns which they qualify; as, *my gun*—the gun which belongs to me; *your hat*—the hat which belongs to you.

114. The possessive pronouns are *my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, own*.

My and *our* are the possessive pronouns of the first person.

Thy and *your* are the possessive pronouns of the second person.

His, her, its, their are the possessive pronouns of the third person.

Own is applied to all the persons. It never stands by itself, but is always conjoined with one or other of the personal possessives, and may be combined with any of them. It intensifies the expression of personality or appropriation.

“*My own, my dear, my native land.*”

Obs.—The possessive pronouns, *my, thy*, etc., are adjectives, and always require a noun to be expressed. We cannot say, *it is my*; but we say, *it is my pen*. The possessive cases do not permit the use of a noun. We say, *it is mine*, as we say *it is John's*; but we cannot say, *it is mine pen*.

Some confusion has been occasioned by the use of the forms *mine* and *thine* as possessive adjectives before a vowel or silent *h*; as *mine age, thine honor*, though this graceful usage has been nearly abandoned. But *mine* and *thine* in this connection are only euphonic substitutes for *my* and *thy*. They are, however, pure Anglo-Saxon adjective pronouns.

115. Relative Pronouns are those which refer to some noun or pronoun, which precedes them in construction, and usually in position; as, *Saddle the horse which I rode yesterday*.

Which is the relative, and refers to the noun *horse* which precedes it.

113. What do Possessive Pronouns express? 114. What are the possessive pronouns? What are the possessive pronouns of the different persons? 115. What are Relative Pronouns?

The noun or pronoun which precedes the relative, and to which the relative refers, is called the antecedent. *Horse* is the antecedent in the example given.

OBS.—A relative pronoun, besides its special pronominal function of representing another word, acts also as a link of connection between the clauses of a sentence, and supplies the place of a conjunction.

116. The simple relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*; *that*, *as*.

The compound relative pronouns are *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whoever*, *whichsoever*, *whichever*, *whatso*, *whatsoever*, *whatever*.

OBS.—*What* is peculiar in meaning and construction. In modern usage it has no antecedent. It includes the relative and the antecedent in one word, and is equivalent to *that which*. *Do what I bid you,—do that which I bid you.* So, *that* may be used alone for *what*; as, *do that I bid you*, but this idiom is scarcely in vogue any longer. *Who*, *that*, and *as* are never joined adjectively with a noun.

117. *Who* is used with reference to persons; *which*, with reference to animals and inanimate things. *That* is often employed instead of *who* and *which*, and is applied to persons, animals, and things indifferently.

The songstress who charmed us. The birds which sang so sweetly.

The boys that shouted, the girls that screamed, the dogs that yelped, and the thunder that roared, all contributed to the general din.

OBS. 1.—In early times *who* was often used to signify things, and *which* more frequently to refer to persons.

OBS. 2.—The relatives *which* and *what* are sometimes followed by the nouns to which they refer; as, *I know not by what fatality it happened*; *Which sayings are allegorical*. In such cases the antecedent is transposed. *I know not that fatality by which it happened*; The *sayings* are allegorical *which* are spoken of.

The use of *what* in these transpositions is remarkable, because it cannot take any proper antecedent. It seems to be employed only when there is an indirect interrogation.

OBS. 3.—*That*, as a relative, is not identical in meaning, when properly used, with *who* and *which*, but has a special limiting or demonstrative import. *The house which Jack built*, chiefly asserts that Jack was the builder of the house. *The house that Jack built*, designates a particular house by mentioning the builder.

This distinction is elaborately explained in Bain's English Grammar, pp. 23-4.

What is the Antecedent? 116. What are the simple Relative Pronouns? What are the compound relative pronouns? 117. How are the relatives *who*, *which*, and *that* used?

118. *As* is rarely used now as a relative, but must still be recognized as belonging to that class of words: thus, *I procured such plants as I wanted.*

This is equivalent in construction, as well as in form, to *I procured those plants which I wanted.*

119. **Interrogative Pronouns** are those that are employed in asking questions; as, *Who robbed the orchard last night?*

OBS.—A question may be grammatically presented in two forms. It may be asked directly; as, *Who robbed the orchard?* or it may be asked indirectly, without making any specific inquiry; as, *I wish I knew who robbed the orchard last night.*

The former mode is called a direct interrogation, and requires the mark of interrogation after it. The latter is called an indirect interrogation, and does not take the mark of interrogation after it.

120. The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *whether*.

121. *Who* refers to persons; *which* to persons, animals, and things; so does *whether*. *What* refers to things only.

Who brought the news?

Which of the horses do you prefer?

Whether of these will you choose?

What has he done?

OBS. 1.—The employment of *whether* as an interrogative has been almost entirely discontinued, but it is of frequent occurrence in the older English writers.

OBS. 2.—*Whether* properly refers to a choice between two things, *which of two?*

122. There are several compound interrogatives; such as, *who else*, *what else*, *which other*, *what other*.

118. Is the use of *as* as a relative frequent? 119. What are Interrogative Pronouns? 120. What are the interrogative pronouns in English? 121. To what do the interrogative pronouns severally refer? 122. What are the compound interrogatives?

123. Demonstrative Pronouns indicate or point out persons and things, so as to distinguish them from others; as, *This is my gun; that is yours.*

124. The only Demonstrative Pronouns in English are *this* and *that*, with their plurals *these* and *those*.

OBS.—*That* belongs to three different parts of speech, according to its use. It is used as a Relative, as a Demonstrative, and as a Conjunction.

It is a Relative when it is not immediately joined to a noun, but refers to an antecedent; as, *The dreams that charmed my youth, visit not my age.*

It is a Demonstrative when it requires a noun, expressed or understood; as *This (man) is a good man; that (man) is a bad one.*

It is a Conjunction when it introduces a dependent clause; as "*Honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long in the land.*"

125. *This* and *these* indicate things nearest to the speaker; *that* and *those* signify the things which are more remote from him.

This chair is broken; that has been mended.

OBS. 1.—*This* and *that*, *these* and *those* are called Correlatives, because they reciprocally refer to each other; and the use of the one supposes the express or implied use of the other. *Wealth and poverty are alike temptations; that generates pride, this discontent.*

OBS. 2.—*Such*, *certain*, and *self-same* are sometimes included among the Demonstrative Pronouns.

OBS. 3.—*Yon* and *yonder*, *former* and *latter*, are used, like *this* and *that*, with a demonstrative signification. *Yon* and *yonder* are ranked by Ben Jonson, and many other grammarians, with the Demonstrative Pronouns. They are, however, adjectives. *Yonder* is the regular Comparative of *yon* or *yond*, and means that which has gone further (*y-gone*, *y-goned*, *yond*, *yonder*).

Former and *latter* are adjectives in the comparative degree.

126. Distributive Pronouns indicate that the individuals composing an aggregate or whole are to be regarded separately; as, *Each of the family has been sick.*

127. The distributive pronouns are, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

123. What do Demonstrative Pronouns indicate? 124. What are the demonstrative pronouns in English? 125. How are *this* and *these*, *that* and *those* employed? 126. What do Distributive Pronouns indicate? 127. Mention the distributive pronouns.

OBS.—*Each* is applied to any number of persons or things, and considers them only separately and singly; as, *Each of the apples was rotten.*

Every is applied to any considerable number of persons or things, and considers them both singly and collectively; as, *Every apple was rotten.*

Either is properly applied to only two persons or things, and regards them singly, but with an indication of indifference as to which of the two may be selected; as, *Take either road you please.*

Neither is a contraction for *not-either* (*ne-either*), and follows strictly the usage of *either*. There seems to have been such a form as *no-other*, whence the old English *nother* and the provincial *nouter* have been derived.

128. Indefinite Pronouns denote persons and things, without any indication of particular individuals; as, *Some turned back; others swam the river.*

Indefinite pronouns refer definitely to things undefined.

129. The indefinite pronouns are, *all, any, no, none, many, some, such, one, other*, and, perhaps, a few more, with many compound forms.

OBS. 1.—The compound indefinite pronouns are numerous. They are, *another, some other, all other, such other, one other, none other, some one, some other, some such, any such*, etc. It is unnecessary to enumerate them, as they may always be treated, and are better parsed separately.

OBS. 2.—*Each other* and *one another* may be termed reciprocal pronouns. They occur only after transitive verbs; and throw back the action of the verb from the one to the other of the persons or things spoken of. *The children tenderly loved each other.* This means that each child loved the other children. *They cheated one another*—that is, one cheated the other.

OBS. 3.—*No* and *none* differ in this: *No* is joined with nouns; *none* is not, though it is joined to other pronouns; as, *none others, none such.*

No is used to express either the singular or the plural. *None* is rarely used except in the plural. But it is unusual rather than incorrect to say, *None has ever excelled him*, since *none* is a contraction for *no one*.

One, other, such, form negations by taking *no* before them; *another, any, all*, take *not*. But *one* also takes *not* in answers; as, *no one, no other, no such; not another, not any, not all.* Which of you did right? *Not one.*

OBS. 4.—*No, all*, and *every* have been frequently regarded as articles; and they have many points of agreement with the articles.

Many recent grammarians of ability have endeavored to introduce what they conceive to be a more philosophical distribution of the parts of speech, by refusing to admit the articles and adjective

128. What do Indefinite Pronouns denote? 129. What are the indefinite pronouns?

pronouns as classes distinct from the adjectives. It has seemed expedient in a text-book for young scholars to adhere to the older and more familiar arrangement, but the new scheme is here appended.

Adjectives are divided into two leading classes; Descriptive Adjectives, and Determinative, Definitive, or Limiting Adjectives.

Descriptive Adjectives denote qualities or properties inherent in the things signified by the nouns which they qualify. Hence, they are called also Qualifying Adjectives.

Determinative, Definitive, or Limiting Adjectives denote the extent, mode, or other limitations of the nouns affected by them.

The **Determinative Adjectives** are distributed into several subdivisions.

1. The articles, *a, an, the*; to which *no, all, and every* are frequently added.

2. The numeral adjectives of all kinds.

3. The demonstrative pronouns.

4. The distributive pronouns.

5. The indefinite pronouns.

6. The possessive pronouns, when not regarded as possessive cases of the personal pronouns.

All the pronominal adjectives, with the exception of the relatives and interrogatives, together with the articles, are thus embraced in one class with the adjective, and form with the numeral adjectives a secondary class of adjectives. The pronouns are thus restricted to the personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns; and the interrogatives are usually identified with the relatives.

This distribution has some advantages, but they are philosophical rather than grammatical, and seem to be more than counterbalanced by the practical disadvantages which result from such an alteration. Grammar should be learnt technically, before the attempt is made to teach it philosophically.

Exercises.

Point out the Pronouns in the following sentences, state their kinds, and tell the nouns for which they stand, or to which they refer.

The bark which is stripped from the oak, is used in tanning leather. There are men in some countries who eat acorns. In this country men live on other things, and the only tame animals that feed upon such food as mast are pigs and poultry. You are hungry, and I am thirsty. The soldiers told their officers that they had done what they were ordered to do. Let us overtake that man that is walking before us, that we may find out the road. Which is right? What is the true answer? Some persons may agree with you; others will not: each man has his own opinion: all do not think alike. Do not tease one another. Who gave you that book? I say that that that that that boy says is wrong, and that that that that that teacher said was right. That that I say is this, that that that that gentleman now asserts is not that that he undertook to prove.

Correct the errors in the following sentences.

I saw the lion who killed the man which fed him. The tree whom you planted has been blown down. The rain what fell has raised the waters, who are too deep now to be forded by those which travel, especially by such that are weak and timorous. Some boys ran a race, and all beat each other.

THE VERB, AND ITS KINDS.

130. A **Verb** is a word which denotes being, a state of being, or action ; as, *I am, I sleep, I strike, I am struck.*

I am signifies simply existence, real or imaginary, in fact or in thought. It is the only verb in the language which directly signifies this and no more. It is hence called the Substantive Verb—or verb of existence (subsistence).

I exist means simply existence, but it means real existence, in fact or in thought. *There exists in Africa a strange animal, called the gorilla. There exists an opposite theory.*

I sleep signifies existence under a special condition, the condition of sleeping.

I strike denotes an act or action—the action of striking—and implies existence in order that action may be possible. It denotes the action, act, or activity of striking.

I am struck denotes an action which takes effect upon me, and which is performed by another.

Obs.—Lindley Murray's definition of a verb, as "a word which signifies to be, to do, and to suffer," was long received as sufficient by succeeding grammarians. But its manifest inaccuracy and inadequacy led to its rejection, and to numerous attempts at a more satisfactory definition. Some of these accord, more or less completely, with that which has been given in the text. But the definition which has latterly been received with most favor, and which is drawn from James Harris of Salisbury, is, that "a verb is a word used to affirm something of a subject."

This definition appears to be both defective and erroneous, and is open to many graver objections than those specified by Horne Took.

130. What is a Verb? Illustrate the different meanings of the verb.

131. In every sentence the verb is the word which asserts, or forms the predication. *The stars—shine ; the stars—are shining.*

No assertion can be made, nor can any sentence be complete without a verb.

Fruit wholesome conveys no meaning. Fruit is the name of a thing, wholesome is the name of a quality. But there is no assertion, no statement, no judgment, no predication, no sentence, till a verb is introduced. *Fruit—is wholesome*, asserts or predicates wholesomeness of fruit.

Obs.—The principal verb in a sentence is called the Finite Verb.

132. Verbs may be divided into two kinds—Transitive and Intransitive.

Obs. 1.—This division of verbs is neither philosophical nor satisfactory, but it is convenient, as it simplifies greatly the study of the verb. It has been adopted by Arnold, Crane, Bullions, Fowler, Butler, Bailey, Barton, Clark, Connon, McLeod, Greene, Wells, Kerl, Quackenbos, Towers, Sullivan, Morell, McCulloch, Thring, Bain, etc.

Obs. 2.—The older division of verbs was into Active, Passive, and Nenter. An active verb signifies an act or action performed ; as, *I strike*. A passive verb expresses an act or action received ; as, *I am struck*. A neuter verb expresses no action at all ; as, *I sleep*.

There are grave objections to the admission of passive verbs as a distinct class : there are graver to its rejection. As there are no simple forms in English which have a passive sense with an active form, the passive verb corresponds with the passive voice, and hence has arisen the main inducement to repudiate this class of verbs.

Many of the best, and many of the latest grammarians still retain the older division. Amongst the number are Brown, Lennie, Smart, Covell, Hunter, Hyde, Clark, Allen, and Cornwell.

Obs. 3.—Every step in the discussion of the verb is open to cavil, and has furnished occasion to endless controversies.

133. Transitive Verbs require the addition of an object to complete the sense ; as, *They killed—a bear.*

Transitive verbs form imperfect predicates by themselves ; they require the statement of the object of the action, to make a full assertion. *They killed —. What? — the bear.*

134. Intransitive Verbs denote an action or con-

131. What is the office of the verb in every sentence ? 132. Into what two kinds may verbs be divided ? 133. What do Transitive Verbs require ? What kind of predicates do transitive verbs form ? 134. What do Intransitive Verbs denote ?

dition which is confined to the subject of the proposition; as, *I walk, I play, I sleep, I die.*

Intransitive verbs form perfect predicates by themselves. They do not require the addition of any object to complete the predication.

135. Verbs are also divided into Principal Verbs, and Auxiliary, or Helping Verbs.

This division relates to their employment in the formation of the compound parts of the verb.

136. The **Principal Verbs** include the greater number of verbs; and nearly all verbs are, under certain circumstances, used as principal verbs.

The only verbs never employed as principal verbs are, *ought, must, may, can.*

137. The **Auxiliary Verbs** are those by the aid of which the compound parts of the verb are formed; as, *I may have been led into error.*

The auxiliary verbs are, *be, have, do, shall, will, may, can, let, must, ought.*

OBS.—*Ought* is frequently excluded from the list of auxiliary verbs; and *dare—durst*, is frequently added to them

Exercises.

Point out the Verbs, and also the Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns in the following sentences. Tell the kinds of the Verbs, and explain why they are of those kinds.

The Athenians had lost all concern for their honor. Mount Hermon is always capped with snow. The young prince

What kind of predicates do intransitive verbs form? 135. How are verbs otherwise divided? What does this division relate to? 136. What do the Principal Verbs include? What are the only verbs never employed as principal verbs? 137. What are the Auxiliary Verbs? Name the auxiliary verbs.

devoted a considerable portion of his time to study. He that swells in prosperity, will shrink in adversity. He that walketh with wise men shall be wise. Patience and perseverance will surmount all difficulties. Sadness contracts the mind; mirth dilates it. Friendship can scarcely exist where virtue is not the foundation. She dances well. He lives obscurely. He laughed, and she smiled. You may do better another time. Vice is its own punishment; and virtue is its own reward. Many lose their labor because they do not prosecute the work which they have begun. The lake reflects the sky. I can tell you nothing about it. The rocks present on every side a steep acclivity.

THE ADVERB.

138. An **Adverb** is a word used to qualify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, *He reads well; they are very poor; you may be justly congratulated; remarkably pleasant proposals were made to us; the man acted very shabbily.*

OBS.—An adverb expresses in a single word what might be less briefly expressed by a preposition with its clause; as, *He reads well—he reads with great elegance and propriety. They are very poor—they are poor in an extreme degree.*

139. Adverbs are such words as *oft, often, very, frequently, truly, only, once, how, however, where, whence, whither, etc.*

* **140.** Adverbs may be distributed into classes, according to the nature of the qualification expressed by them.

The principal classes of adverbs (which admit of further subdivision) are—

138. What is an Adverb? 139. Give examples of adverbs. * 140. Into what classes may adverbs be distributed? Give instances of adverbs of each class.

I. Adverbs of time :

Now, then, when, once, at once, soon, often, ere, while, ere-while, whilst, ago, early, late, lately, next, before, after, afterwards, presently, immediately, yesterday, to-day, to-morrow, sometimes, never, henceforward, hereafter, etc.

II. Adverbs of place :

Here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence, hitherward, thitherward, above, below, yonder, forth, forwards, backwards, sideways, right, left, far, near, off, on, up, down, upward, downward, to and fro, etc.

III. Adverbs of number :

Once, twice, thrice, first, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, frequently, etc.

IV. Adverbs of manner :

Well, ill, slowly, quickly, brightly, brilliantly, sadly, badly, stupidly, sweetly, how, etc.

V. Adverbs of logical relation :

Why, wherefore (forthy, obsolete), therefore, etc.

VI. Adverbs of degree and comparison :

Enough, excellently, extremely, extravagantly, almost, quite, scarcely, very, more, most, so, as, etc.

VII. Adverbs of affirmation or negation :

Yes, yea, aye, not, no, not so, not-at-all, in no wise, forsooth, verily, certainly, etc.

VIII. Adverbs of doubt :

Peradventure, perchance, perhaps, possibly.

IX. Adverbs of direction—many of them also adverbs of place :

Upward, downward, inward, outward, windward, leeward, seaward, landward, etc.

X. Adverbs of quantity :

All, altogether, entirely, wholly, partly, how much ? so much, etc.

OBS.—*No* is frequently used with adjectives and *not* with nouns, in order to express an opposite signification with more intensity ; as, *No small fool ; no great result ; not a Solomon.*

Exercises.

Point out the Adverbs, and the other parts of speech with which you are now acquainted, in the following phrases and sentences.

Very fragrant. Wherever I go. Excellently well. He seldom leaves home. They live very frugally. The work is already done. Pre-eminently beautiful. Children often pronounce words improperly. One may sew while the other reads. Prepare your lessons carefully. How pathetically were the deaths of Saul and Jonathan lamented by David! The house was left entirely open, and the keys could be found nowhere. My cousin visited me here lately. Take exercise daily. Where I am, thither ye cannot come. The ship was driven ashore yesterday. The thrush sings sweetly. However strange it may appear, it is altogether certain: good may perhaps result. The walls of the house fell inward.

PREPOSITIONS.

141. A **Preposition** is a word used to show the relation of nouns and pronouns to other words in the sentence; as, *Death entered into the world by sin.*

The preposition *into* shows what was entered by death; the preposition *by* shows the agency by which death was enabled to enter into the world.

OBS. 1.—“The original use of nearly all prepositions appears to have been to give *local direction* to the action of verbs.”—Mulligan, p. 244.

The use of the preposition is to enlarge an attribute or a predicate, but chiefly the latter, by directing its meaning to some notion which completes or limits it. Hence, prepositions are often used adverbially; and hence prepositional clauses have always the effect of adverbs in a sentence.

142. Prepositions do not always require a noun or

141. What is a Preposition? 142. Do prepositions always require nouns or pronouns after them?

pronoun after them; as, *He went up*—that is, *he ascended*.

OBS. 1.—Prepositions may be joined with verbs either in composition, or loosely, without entering into composition; as, *To undertake a thing*, and *to take up a thing*; *to overlook a parcel*; *to look over a book*; *to look over a bush*.

The signification of the verb generally varies with the use of the same preposition, according as it is joined to the verb or disconnected from it. Thus, *To overlook a parcel*, is to neglect it, to fail to perceive it; *to look over a book*, is to run the eye rapidly and cursorily over its pages; *to look over a bush*, is to look above and beyond a bush.

The meaning of the preposition is always modified by the meaning of both the terms which it connects.

OBS. 2.—In connection with a verb, the preposition often has no noun or pronoun after it, but expresses merely an altered relation of the meaning conveyed by the verb. In, *He looked down*, the preposition only expresses a changed direction of the act of looking. In these forms, the preposition is often regarded as an adverb, and it certainly exhibits an adverbial construction. But it appears inconsistent to consider *over* a preposition in *overlook*, and not a preposition in *look over*. It is better to regard *over* in the latter case also as a preposition, severed by Tmesis from the verb to which it belongs. (See Mulligan, p. 202, 235-6.)

The English language abounds in words of this character; and the constructions resulting from them constitute one of the most characteristic peculiarities of the tongue—a peculiarity with difficulty apprehended by foreigners, and rarely appreciated even by those to whom English is the mother tongue.

143. Prepositions are divided into separable and inseparable.

The separable prepositions may enter into composition with other words, or may be placed before nouns and pronouns, or may stand without nouns or pronouns after them; as, *a downfall*; *a fall down the cliff*; *to fall down*.

The inseparable prepositions are employed only in composition. They are such as *a*, *be*, *fore*, and many elements of compound words derived from foreign tongues; as, *a-foot*, *a-board*, *be-dew*, *be-come*, *fore-go*, *fore-done*, *sub-tract*, *subterfuge*, *im-prove*, *ac-cept*.

* 144. The principal prepositions in English may be arranged in the following classes:

I. The simple prepositions: *at*, *after*, *but*, *by*, *down*, *far from*, *in*, *of*, *off*, *on*, *over*, *round*, *since*, *till*, *through*, *under*, *up*, *with*, *out*, *than*.

143. How are prepositions divided? How are separable, and how are inseparable prepositions used? *144. Mention some of the principal English prepositions under their respective classes.

II. Prepositions formed with the prefix *a*: *aboard*, *above*, *about*, *across*, *against*, *along*, *amid*, *amidst*, *among*, *amongst*, *around*, *athwart*.

Amidst and *amongst* are superlative forms of *amid* and *among*.

III. Prepositions formed with the prefix *be*: *before*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *beside*, *besides*, *between*, *betwixt*, *beyond*.

IV. Prepositions formed by compounding a preposition with another preposition, or with some other word: *into*, *out of*, *throughout*, *towards*, *upon*, *until*, *unto*, *underneath*, *within*, *without*, *inside*, *outside*.

V. Active participles used as prepositions: *concerning*, *during*, *excepting*, *notwithstanding*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *pending*, *touching*.

VI. Some imperatives employed prepositionally: *save*, *except*. *But* may be included in this class.

VII. Several phrases are used as prepositions: *despite of*, *according to*, *in accordance with*, *in consequence of*, *pertaining to*, *by reason of*, *with respect to*, *with relation to*, *out of regard for*.

Nigh, *next*, and *worth* are sometimes regarded as prepositions.

145. Prepositions may be joined together, so as to modify the relation signified by the principal preposition in such combination: *The book was incorrectly printed from about the twentieth to about the sixtieth page*.

Instances of such connected prepositions are: *from off*, *from about*, *from without*, *from within*; *at about*, *of about*, *round about*, *to about*; *till before*, *till after*; *over beyond*, *up to*.

Obs. 1.—Many grammarians have condemned the use of prepositions with pronominal adverbs dependent upon them in place of substantives. Thus they proscribe such expressions as, *Where are you going to?* *where have you come from?* *From thence he departed on the third day*.

Such phrases are in entire consonance with the usages of the Greek and of other languages; they are fully sanctioned by the best English authorities; and their exclusion deprives the English language of much of its vigor and idiomatic complexion. They are often more correct and elegant, because more idiomatic, than the substitutes proposed for them—*Whither*, or *to what place are you going?* *Whence*, or *from what place have you come?* *Thence he departed on the third day*.

The accepted usages of language cannot be set aside by any formal prescriptions of grammar. In the present instance, it has been overlooked that *here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence*, are real cases of pronouns, transmitted from the elder form of the language; and that they were habitually used after prepositions.

OBS. 2.—It is a distinctively English idiom to close a sentence with a preposition: "*Pedantry is properly the overrating of any kind of knowledge that we pretend to.*"—Swift.

146. Much of the elegance of writing and speaking depends upon the habitual employment of the appropriate prepositions after particular words.

We *arrive at* a place; not, *to* a place: we *ask* questions *of* a person; not *at* one: but we *ask* a favor *of* another.

OBS.—The general rule is, that compound words, borrowed from foreign languages, require a preposition corresponding with that which enters into their composition; as, *to enter into a house; to enter in a cemetery.*

But to this rule there are numerous exceptions; and it is the exceptions which require observance. The list is too long to be inserted here.

Exercises.

Point out the Prepositions and prepositional phrases (§ 144, vii.) in the following sentences. Tell also the kinds of the other words.

They ran towards the river. The monkey jumped upon the wall. The sailors climbed up to the top of the mast. The pitman fell to the bottom of the pit. Many men have died in consequence of such accidents. I have known him for a long time. The village is situated between two high ridges. You must stay at home to-day instead of going to the picnic, on account of your misconduct. The cattle swam across the river. I borrowed the Book of Sports from a friend. Brooklyn is opposite to New York. All aboard the vessel were lost. An eclipse takes place when the moon passes between the sun and the earth, thus coming before the sun, or when the moon passes behind the earth. It has been very cold throughout this whole month of March.

(For Models and Exercises in parsing Prepositions, see p. 220.)

146. How is the elegance of language affected by the choice of prepositions?

CONJUNCTIONS.

147. A **Conjunction** is a word which connects words, phrases, clauses, and sentences.

It makes a single phrase or sentence out of what would otherwise require separate sentences for its expression.

James and George will go, if I remain. But, if I go, they will remain.

Here, the conjunction *and* connects the proper names *James* and *George*. The conjunction *if* connects the dependent clauses, *I remain*, and *I go*, with the principal clauses *James and George will go*, and *they will remain*. The conjunction *but* connects the two sentences together. Were it not for the employment of these conjunctions, the statements conveyed as a combined declaration by these two propositions, or sentences, would be awkwardly, indistinctly, and inadequately expressed by several separate sentences. *James will go. George will go. I will remain. They will go in that event. They will not go otherwise. I will go. They will remain in that event. Their going depends upon my remaining. My going depends upon their remaining. My remaining depends upon their going. Their remaining depends upon my going.*

Obs.—Other parts of speech, as the verb, the relative, the adverb, and the preposition, or adverbial or prepositional phrases, frequently have the same effect as a conjunction. *You will go : for that reason I will remain. Stay where you are.*

148. A conjunction connects together two or more words, or phrases, or clauses, or sentences, but it does not necessarily connect together their significations.

When we say, *A man, and a woman, and a boy ; a man, or a woman, or a boy ; neither a man, nor a woman ;* we do not mean that the man, the woman, and the boy, are either identical, or connected together.

149. The principal conjunctions in English are the following :

And, also, as, because, besides, both, but, else, except, for, further, hence, however, if, likewise, neither—nor, nevertheless, notwithstanding, nor, now, either—or, or, save, since, so, than, that, then, therefore, though, although, unless, lest, when, whereas, wherefore, while yet.

147. What is a Conjunction ? 148. What does a conjunction connect ? and what does it not always connect ? 149. Mention the principal English conjunctions.

OBS.—Several of these words are primarily adverbs, but, being frequently employed as connectives, they have come to be regarded as conjunctions. Many adverbs, prepositions, and other words are used with the force of conjunctions, and must be treated as such when so employed.

150. Besides the simple conjunctions, there are many compound conjunctions, or conjunctive phrases; as, *in addition to this, inasmuch as, for all that, as well as, notwithstanding that, as if, as though, except that, etc.*

151. Conjunctions are usually divided into two principal classes, Copulative and Disjunctive.

Joseph and John are at work in the field: Joseph is industrious, but John is not.

In the first member of this sentence *and* is a Copulative Conjunction. In the second member, *but* is a Disjunctive Conjunction.

152. Copulative Conjunctions connect together words, parts of sentences, and sentences, and unite their meanings into a compound declaration.

They are, *and, as, also, because, for, if, since, that, then, etc.*

153. Disjunctive Conjunctions connect words, parts of sentences, and sentences, so as to form a single complex declaration from opposing or contrasted thoughts.

They are, *although, but, either—or, however, lest, neither—nor, notwithstanding, or, than, though, unless, whether, yet, etc.*

154. Some conjunctions are habitually, though not exclusively, used in pairs. These are called **Correlative Conjunctions**. They are,

Though—yet, nevertheless. Though He slay me, yet will I trust on Him.

150. Are there any other conjunctions besides the simple conjunctions? Give examples. 151. How are conjunctions usually divided? 152. What is the nature of Copulative Conjunctions? Name some copulative conjunctions. 153. What is the nature of Disjunctive Conjunctions? Mention some disjunctive conjunctions. 154. What are Correlative Conjunctions? Give examples.

Either—or. He will *either* write *or* send.

Whether—or. It matters not *whether* you go *or* stay.

Neither—nor. *Neither* Blake *nor* Nelson lived to enjoy his honors.

As—as. The Irish are *as* rich in genius *as* any other people.

As—so. *As* you treat him, *so* will he treat you.

So—as. The English have not dwelt in England *so* long *as* the Welsh.

So—that. He was *so* lazy *that* he would not stir.

155. *Than* is used as a conjunction after adjectives and adverbs in the comparative degree. *He arrived earlier than I—that is, than I arrived.*

Obs.—*Than* is also used as a preposition after comparatives; as, *Aristotle, than whom a greater philosopher never lived.* We cannot say, a greater philosopher than who never lived.

But, if it be correct to use *than* as a preposition in such constructions, it should be correct to say, *He arrived earlier than me.* But this locution is generally condemned.

It is better, therefore, to employ *than* solely as a conjunction, and never as a preposition; but we must recognize its former use as a preposition, and its occasional use as such still.

***156.** Conjunctions are otherwise divided into the two classes of Co-ordinative and Subordinative Conjunctions.

Co-ordinative Conjunctions unite together words and statements independent of each other, and form compound sentences.

God sustains and governs the world; but He leaves man free and responsible.

The conjunction *and* here unites words: the conjunction *but* unites statements.

Subordinative Conjunctions unite sentences together in such a manner that one is employed to modify the other.

Ye shall perish, unless ye repent.

The conjunction *unless* modifies or limits the declaration "ye shall perish," by introducing a sentence "ye repent," which states the condition which would prevent perishing.

155. When is *than* employed as a conjunction? *156. How are conjunctions otherwise divided? What are Co-ordinative, and what are Subordinative Conjunctions?

OBS.—Co-ordinative and subordinative conjunctions are subdivided into other classes. There are wide differences in different authors, in regard to the scheme of such divisions, which are better calculated to perplex the learner than to afford him any available knowledge.

Exercises.

Point out the Conjunctions and the other parts of speech in the following sentences ; and explain the use of the different kinds of Conjunctions.

Neither you nor your brother can go. Boys delight in fishing and hunting. The civil and religious customs of a people leave traces in its language. Send Thomas, or Peter or Robert. Pompey was not so great a man as Cæsar. I shall leave to-morrow, whether you go with me, or leave me to go alone. Although He slay me, yet will I trust in Him. Love your parents, for that is the commandment. If you are diligent, you may learn much ; but unless you study, you cannot learn. Wisdom is more precious than fine gold. Love thy neighbor as thyself. He was ashamed because he had done wrong. If I am mistaken, correct me, and I will thank you. Others can do it as well as I can. As if an angel spoke, I feel the solemn sound.

(For Models and Exercises in parsing Conjunctions, see p. 220.)

INTERJECTIONS.

157. An **Interjection** is a word which expresses some sudden emotion of the speaker ; as, *Oh ! what a fall was there, my countrymen !*

158. Interjections are employed wherever the language of feeling is substituted for the language of thought ; and may be formed by single words, by phrases, or by whole sentences ; as, *Ah ! Lack-a-day ! Woe is me !*

157. What is an Interjection ? 158. When are interjections employed ? and of what may they consist ?

OBS. 1.—An interjection, or an interjectional clause, may be thrown in at almost any part of a sentence without disturbing its grammatical structure. It is from this circumstance that the interjection has derived its name (something thrown between).

OBS. 2.—Almost all imperatives, numerous other words, and many phrases, may be used as interjections under appropriate circumstances.

159. The principal interjections in English are :

Ah! Aha! Alas! Alack! Away! Begone! Bravo! Eh! Fie! Ha! Halloo! Hollo! Hurrah! Hush! Lo! O! Oh! Hark! He! Heigh! Pooh! Pish! Psha! Tush! Woe!

OBS.—To this list may be added those primitive types of speech—hardly to be called words—which are still retained in English: *H'm!* *hem!* *ahem!* *um!* *um-hum!* *Umph!* *Humph!* *Ugh!* with various intonations.

Exercises.

Point out the Interjections, and Interjectional Phrases, and the parts of speech to which the other words belong, in the following sentences.

Alas! for the vanity of human pleasures. Oh! stay, and heed me. Hark! how the thunder rolls! Lo! he comes. Ah! how unjust! Beautiful! how beautiful is all this visible earth! In vain, alas! in vain, ye gallant few. Strange! that we should have been so deceived. Behold! the night cometh in which no man can work.

(For Models and Exercises in parsing Interjections, see p. 222.)

Part II.

ACCIDENCE, OR THE INFLECTION OF WORDS.

160. The only words which receive inflection in English are Nouns and Pronouns, Adjectives and a few Adverbs, and Verbs.

161. The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called Declension.

159. What are the principal interjections in English? 160. What are the only words which receive inflection in English? 161. What is the inflection of nouns and pronouns called?

The inflection of adjectives and adverbs is called Comparison.

The inflection of verbs is called Conjugation.

162. The inflection of nouns and pronouns indicates their Number, Gender, and Case.

The inflection of adjectives and adverbs indicates their Degree.

The inflection of verbs indicates their Person, Number, Voice, Tense, and Mood.

OBS.—These terms will all be explained in the consideration of the special inflections of these parts of speech.

163. The classes of words, which are entirely without inflection in English, are the Articles, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

164. Nouns are **inflected** or **declined** in order to signify Number, Gender, and Case ; as, *master, masters ; master, mistress ; the master, the master's directions.*

OBS. 1.—Declension is a much more comprehensive term in English than inflection, because it includes variations of use which are not shown by any change of form in the present language.

Thus, the word *horse* is employed in different relations in the sentence, *The horse kicked him*, and *He kicked the horse*. But there is no diversity of form to show this painful diversity of relation.

OBS. 2.—Such identity of form, notwithstanding the difference of relation signified, is due mainly to the loss of the characteristic inflections, and occasions what has been termed *a virtual inflection*. Virtual inflections occur, more or less abundantly, in all languages ; but they are peculiarly numerous in English.

165. Number distinguishes words according as they denote one thing, or more than one ; as, *an orange, oranges.*

What is the inflection of adjectives and adverbs called ? What is the inflection of verbs called ? 162. What does the inflection of nouns and pronouns indicate ? What does the inflection of adjectives and adverbs exhibit ? What is the inflection of verbs used to signify ? 163. What classes of words are entirely without inflection in English ? 164. For what are nouns inflected or declined ? 165. What does Number distinguish ?

166. There are two numbers, the Singular and the Plural.

A noun which signifies one thing is in the singular number; as, *book, saw, ship*.

A noun which signifies more things than one is in the plural number; as, *books, saws, ships*.

167. Gender distinguishes words with relation to the sex of the things denoted by them; as, *man, woman, hammer*.

168. There are three genders—the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

Man is masculine; *woman* is feminine; and *hammer* is neuter.

169. In English, nouns signifying males are masculine; nouns signifying females are feminine; and nouns signifying things without sex, or without distinction of sex, are neuter.

Thus, *Louis, prince, lion*, are masculine; *Louisa, princess, lioness*, are feminine; and *plough, sea, door, infant*, are neuter.

OBS.—Some nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the things signified by them at the time; as, *parent, child, friend*.

Such words are sometimes said to be of the Common or Epicene Gender; but this term is objectionable and unnecessary.

170. Case is the distinction in the form or in the use of nouns, which indicates their relation to other words in the sentence; as, *a lady's veil*—a veil belonging to a lady; *men's boots*—boots intended for men.

OBS.—In English, virtual inflections take the place, for the most part, of the actual inflections employed in earlier languages, and in the early forms of the English language.

166. How many numbers are there? What are they? When is a noun in the singular number? When is a noun in the plural number? 167. What does Gender distinguish? 168. How many genders are there? What are they? 169. What nouns are masculine, what feminine, and what neuter in English? 170. What is Case?

171. There are only three cases generally recognized in English—the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective ; as, *book, book's, book.*

Obs.—It is said that only three cases are recognized in English, because it will be shown hereafter that other cases still survive.

172. The **Nominative Case** is the simple form of the noun, and names the subject of the sentence ; as, *man, a man, the man, the men ; the men were idle.*

173. The **Possessive Case** is formed by the addition of *s* with an apostrophe ('s), or of the apostrophe alone ('), to the nominative case of the noun. It denotes possession, property, etc. ; as, *man's duty, a man's hat, the man's money, the men's work, merchants' goods, for goodness' sake.*

174. The **Objective Case** of nouns is identical in form with the nominative. It points out the object to which the action, predicate, or attribute is directed ; as, *Call Moses ; good for nothing.*

NUMBER OF NOUNS.

175. The **Singular Number** of nouns is expressed by the simplest form of the word ; as, *band, box, coach, child.*

176. The **Plural Number** of nouns is formed from the singular, usually by adding the termination *s* or *es* ; as, *bands, boxes, coaches, children.*

171. How many cases are generally recognized in English ? What are they ?
 172. What is the form of the Nominative Case ? What does the nominative denote ?
 173. How is the Possessive Case formed ? What does the possessive denote ? 174.
 What form does the Objective Case assume ? What does the objective point out ?
 175. How is the Singular Number of nouns expressed ? 176. How is the Plural
 Number formed ?

OBS.—The letter *s* alone is added when the sound of *s* combines readily with the final sound of the word; *es* when it will not do so; as, *Chair, chairs*; *lad, lads*; *tale, tales*; *lass, lasses*; *fish, fishes*. There are several exceptions to this principle.

Several special rules are given for the formation of the plural.

*177. RULE I.—Nouns ending in *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, *tch*, and *x*, form the plural by adding *es* to the singular; as, *kiss, kisses*; *brush, brushes*; *church, churches*; *fox, foxes*.

RULE II.—Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant add *es*; as, *hero, heroes*; *cargo, cargoes*; *negro, negroes*.

Except *Canto, cantos*; *octavo, octavos*; *quarto, quartos*; *portico, porticos*; *solo, solos*; *grotto, grottos*; *tyro, tyros*; *zero, zeros*.

RULE III.—Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel add *s* only; as, *bamboo, bamboos*; *cameo, cameos*; *folio, folios*.

RULE IV.—Nouns ending in *ff* take *s* only; as, *puff, puffs*; *muff, muffs*; *rebuff, rebuffs*.

Except *staff*, whose plural is *staves*. But its compounds are regular; as, *flag-staff, flag-staffs*: but *tipstaff* often makes its plural *tipstaves*.

RULE V.—Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the plural; as, *loaf, loaves*; *calf, calves*; *life, lives*; *wife, wives*.

Except *dwarf, brief, chief, grief, handkerchief, mischief, gulf, life, safe, strife, proof, hoof, roof, reproof, fief, reef, relief, waif*, which take *s* only.

Scarf, wharf, dwarf, and hoof have their plural in either *s* or *es*; but *scarves, dwarves, and hooves* are antiquated forms.

*177. How are the plurals of nouns in *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, and *x* formed? How do nouns in *o* preceded by a consonant form the plural? What are the exceptions to this rule? How do nouns in *o* preceded by a vowel form the plural? How is the plural of nouns ending in *ff* formed? What is the exception to this rule? How is the plural of nouns ending in *f* or *fe* formed? What are the exceptions? What are the plurals of *scarf, wharf, dwarf, hoof*?

RULE VI.—Nouns terminating in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *ies* ; as, *lady, ladies* ; *city, cities*.

But if *y* follows a vowel, it is not changed, and *s* only is added ; as, *chimney, chimneys* ; *attorney, attorneys* ; *joy, joys*.

The termination *quy* becomes *quies* in the plural ; as, *soliloquy, soliloquies*. *Qu* has the effect of a consonant, and seems to be regarded as such.

178. Some nouns form the plural by adding *en* to the singular ; as, *ox, oxen* ; *child, children* ; *brother, brethren*.

OBS.—Such plurals were much more numerous in the earlier English ; as, *tree, treen, trees* ; *shoe, shoon, shoes* ; *eye, eyen, eyes* ; *hose, hosen* ; *house, housen*, etc.

To this class belong also other words which have undergone a further inflection ; as, *sow, swine* ; *cow, kine*.

179. Several nouns form the plural by changing the vowel sounds or vowel letters of the singular ; as, *man, men* ; *woman, women* ; *foot, feet*.

180. In some words the plural appears to be entirely irregular in formation ; the termination being changed to the sound, but not to the spelling of *s*, sometimes with, and sometimes without a change of the vowel sound of the singular ; as, *Die, dice* ; *pea, pease* ; *mouse, mice*.

181. The nouns of English origin, which form the plural otherwise than by the addition of *s* or *es* to the singular, are among the oldest words in the language, and retain, completely or partially, their ancient inflection. They are—

Ox,	oxen.	Cow,	{ kine,
Child,	children.		{ cows.
Brother,	{ brethren,	Die,	{ dice,
	{ brothers.		{ dies.

How is the plural of nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, formed ? How is the plural formed when *y* follows a vowel ? What is the plural of nouns ending in *quy* ? 178. How do *ox, child, brother*, form their plurals ? 179. How are the plurals of *man, woman, foot*, etc., formed ? 180. What other mode of forming the plural is found in English ? 181. What is the character of the nouns which form their plurals irregularly ?

Man,	men.	Pea,	{ pease,
Woman,	women.		{ peas.
Foot,	feet.	Tooth,	teeth.
Goose,	geese.	Penny,	{ pence,
Louse,	lice.		{ pennies.
Mouse,	mice.	Sow,	{ swine,
			{ sows.

Obs. 1.—Several of these words have two plural forms; the one in accordance with the analogy of the modern language; the other retained from the elder time. In these cases, the two plurals are now used with different significations. *Brothers* is applied to persons of the same family; *brethren*, to members of the same society. *Sows* means more than one *sow*; *swine*, more than one of the *hog* kind. *Cows* signifies more than one *cow*; *kine*, several cattle. *Peas* is ordinarily used in speaking of the vegetable and its products for the table; *pease* is rarely employed except in composition, as *pease-pudding*, *pease-broth*. *Dice* are little cubes of ivory used in gambling, and casting lots; *dies* are stamps for coining, and making medals, etc. *Pence* denotes the value of more than one *penny*; *pennies* more than one of the coins denominated a *penny*.

Obs. 2.—The compounds of these words follow them in the formation of the plural; as, *grand-child*, *grand-children*; *gentleman*, *gentlemen*; *dog-tooth*, *dog-teeth*; *shrew-mouse*, *shrew-mice*; *sixpenny*, *sixpence*, *sixpennies*.

But *sixpence* and other similar compounds may be used as singular nouns, and receive another plural termination. Thus, it is perfectly correct to say *five half-pences* (pronounced *hāpences*), *four three-pences* (pronounced *thrippences*), and three *sixpences*. What is spoken of in this way is the coin or aggregate of value, designated respectively a *half-penny*, a *three-pence*, and a *sixpence*.

Obs. 3.—The words *German*, *Norman*, *Turcoman*, *Mussulman*, *talisman*, *cayman*, *leman*, and similar words, take the common form of the plural in *s* because they are not compounds of the English word, *man*.

* 182. Some compound nouns form the plural by attaching the plural sign to either of the words which compose them; as, *knights-errant*, or *knight-errants*; *courts-martial*, or *court-martials*. But we must say *Lord High Chancellors*, and not *Lords High Chancellor*.

Obs. 1.—In most cases, double titles require each to be put in the plural; as, *The Lords Bishops*, *the Lords Commissioners*; but *Major-Generals*, and not *Majors-Generals*.

Obs. 2.—To this head belongs also the question whether it is more correct to say *the Miss Browns*, or *the Misses Brown*. Most American and some English writers on English grammar direct us to say *the Misses Brown*, *the Misses McFlimsey*, etc. This accords with French usage, but appears to be a vulgarism in English. Goldsmith says, *the two Miss Flamboroughs*; and this form is approved by the best English grammarians, is sustained by the practice of the best society, and is in consonance with Latin custom.

Obs. 3.—Such compounds as *handful*, *spoonful*, *cupful*, make new nouns, and form their plural *handfuls*, *spoonfuls*, *cupfuls*—not *hands-ful*.

* 182. How do some compound nouns form the plural?

183. Several nouns in English admit no change in the plural. Such are : sing., *sheep* ; pl., *sheep*.

These words are *sheep, deer, trout, salmon, pike*.

Obs.—*Riches* and *alms* are really singular nouns, notwithstanding their apparently plural forms. They are contractions of the French *richesse* and *almesse*. They are now used habitually as plurals in English.

184. Some nouns, singular in form, have always a plural meaning, and usually a plural construction ; as, *cattle, game, fish* (when used in certain connections).

Fish are plentiful this season.

Sail, shot, cannon, folk (as a noun of multitude), *horse and foot*, when used to designate cavalry and infantry, come under this head.

Obs.—In the phrases, *a hundred pound, three dozen, five score, two brace of partridges, twenty head of cattle*, singular nouns have plural meanings, and are used in constructions which would seem to require plural forms. All of these words, except *cattle* and *brace*, have a regular plural, when applied to individuals or to distinct aggregates.

185. Some nouns, plural in form, have a singular meaning and construction ; as, *amends, gallows, means, news, odds, pains*.

Other words of this kind are *ashes, billiards, bitters, clothes, embers, measles, summons, hysterics, manners, shambles*.

Obs.—The names of many of the sciences are singular in construction, though plural in form ; as, *Optics, Mechanics, Politics, Tactics, Mathematics*. *Logic, Rhetoric, Music, Physic* retain the singular form.

186. Nouns denoting the kinds of things, and not the individuals composing a class, and many abstract nouns, are rarely used in the plural ; as, *corn, rye, barley, buckwheat ; gold, silver, iron ; marl, clay, loam, timber ; gravity, lucidity, gratitude, darkness*.

183. Do any English nouns remain unchanged in the plural ? Enumerate such nouns. 184. What nouns have a singular form and a plural use ? What other nouns come under this head ? 185. What nouns have a plural form and a singular use ? Mention other words of this class. 186. What kinds of nouns have rarely any plural ?

Oats is, nowever, used to designate that grain. An *oat* is sometimes employed to signify a single specimen of the plant.

OBS.—Words of these kinds are pluralized when varieties or repetitions of the things named are referred to ; as, *Wheats have risen in price, but sugars have fallen.* We speak also of *the specific gravities of bodies ; the benevolences of a charitable man ; the irons of a wagon ; the timbers of a ship.*

187. Nouns which imply plurality of parts have the plural form only ; as, *lungs, tongs, scissors, clothes ; annals, archives ; matins, vespers ; stairs* and *hose*, which was originally *hosen*. Many other nouns are rarely used in the singular.

OBS.—*Hose* should, perhaps, have been included among the singular nouns which have a plural signification. The Anglo-Saxon word is *hosen* ; the modern German, *hose*, Pl. *hosen*. But *hose* may be a contraction for *hosen*.

188. Nouns derived from foreign tongues, without alteration of form, generally preserve their foreign plurals ; though some of them receive also the English form of the plural.

The most important words of this kind are :

FROM THE HEBREW.

Cherub,	{ cherubim,	Seraph,	{ seraphim,
Teraphim,	{ cherubs.		{ seraphs.

FROM THE GREEK.

Analysis,	analyses.	Automaton,	{ automata,
Antithesis,	antitheses.		{ automaton.
Crisis,	crises.	Basis,	bases.
Criterion,	criteria.	Oäsis,	oäses.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Hypothesis,	hypotheses.	Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Metamorphosis,	metamorphoses.	Synopsis,	synopses.
Miasma,	{ miasmata,	Synthesis,	syntheses.
	{ miasmas.	Thesis,	theses.

But we say, Hyperboles, Hyperbolas, and Parabolas.

FROM THE LATIN.

Addendum,	addenda.	Genius,	genii, geniuses.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Genus,	genera.
Animalculum,	animalcula.	Ignis-fatuus,	ignes-fatui.
Apex,	apices, apexes.	Index,	indices, indexes.
Appendix,	{ appendices,	Lamina,	laminæ.
	{ appendixes.	Larva,	larvæ, larvas.

What exception is given? 187. What nouns have the plural form only?
188. How do words derived from foreign tongues form the plural?

FROM THE LATIN—*continued*.

Arcanum,	arcana.	Magus,	magi.
Axis,	axes.	Medium,	media, mediums
Calx,	calces.	Memorandum	{ memoranda, memorandums.
Datum,	data.	Menstruum,	
Desideratum,	desiderata.	Nebula,	menstrua.
Dictum,	dicta.	Radius,	nebulæ.
Effluvium,	effluvia.	Pupa,	radii.
Erratum,	errata.	Species,	pupæ, pupas.
Focus,	foci.	Stimulus,	species.
Formula,	{ formulæ, formulas.	Stratum,	stimuli.
Fungus,	{ fungi, funguses.	Vertex,	strata.
		Vortex,	vertices.
			vortices.

FROM THE FRENCH.

Beau,	beaux.	(Monsieur),	{ Messieurs, (Messrs.)
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FROM THE ITALIAN.

Bandit,	banditti.	Conversazione,	conversazioni.
Cognoscente,	cognoscenti.	Dilettante,	dilettanti.
Virtuoso,	virtuosi.		

There are, moreover, the plurals, *Moslemin*, *Muezzim*, *Islamim*, *Paynim*, etc., from Arabic, Turkish, etc.

OBS.—Sometimes the native and the English plurals of foreign nouns are used in different senses. Thus *genii* means the spirits of Roman mythology; but *geniuses*, men of extraordinary intellectual endowments.

Indices is chiefly employed as an algebraic term; but *indexes* denotes tables of reference.

Hippopotamuses is better than *hippopotami*. *Ignoramuscs* and *bonuscs* are the correct plural forms, because *ignoramus* and *bonus* are not Latin nouns, though used as nouns in English.

Exercises.

Tell the Plurals of the following nouns.

Book, roof, staff, box, man, stomach, ruff, potato, knife, monarch, fife, folio, brother, sister, echo, key, child, deer, army, silver, fly, distich, mouse, sheep, haunch, chorus, prince, princess, watch, wisdom, alderman, painting, alley, ox, motto, pulse, handful, sheriff, iron, bread, goose, lens, salmon, kangaroo, opossum, nuncio, malice, foot, Henry, shears, mother-in-law, aide-de-camp, Lieutenant-General, scissors, cattle, means, music, pity, pains, Jacob's staff.

THE GENDER OF NOUNS.

189. There are three modes of distinguishing Gender in English.

1. By the employment of different words; as, *father*, *mother*.
2. By a distinctive termination; as, *heir*, *heiress*.
3. By adding a word indicative of the sex; as, *a he-goat* *a she-goat*.

1. BY THE EMPLOYMENT OF DIFFERENT WORDS.

Bachelor,	{ maid, maiden, spinster.	Dog, Colt, Drake,	bitch. filly. duck.	Man, Master, Milter,	woman. miss. spawner.
Beau,	belle.	Earl,	Countess.	Nephew,	niece.
Boar,	sow.	Father,	mother.	Papa,	mamma.
Boy,	girl.	Friar, {	nun.	Ram,	ewe.
Bridegroom,	bride.	Monk, {		Sir,	madam.
Brother,	sister.	Gander,	goose.	Sloven,	slut.
Buck,	doe.	Gentleman,	lady.	Son,	daughter.
Bull,	cow.	Hart,	roe.	Stag,	hind.
Bullock, }		Horse,	mare.	Swain,	ny.nph.
Ox,	heifer.	Husband,	wife.	Uncle,	au.t.
Steer,		King,	queen.	Widower,	wi.c'w.
Cock,	hen.	Lord,	lady.	Wizard,	witch.

2. BY A CHANGE IN THE TERMINATION.

Abbot,	abbess.	Duke,	duchess.
Actor,	actress.	Heir,	heiress.
Arbiter,	arbitress.	Hero,	heroine.
Baron,	baroness.	Mister,	mistress.
Emperor,	empress.	Marquis,	marchioness.
Governor,	governess.	Negro,	negress.
		etc., etc., etc.	

OBS.—In words of foreign origin gender is usually distinguished by retaining the foreign forms of the feminine; as,

Administrator,	administratrix.	Margrave,	margravine.
Czar,	czarina.	Signor,	signora.
Executor,	executrix.	Sultan,	sultana.
Infant,	infanta.	Tutor,	tutrix.
Improvisatore,	improvisatrice.	Testator,	testatrix.

3. BY ADDING A WORD INDICATIVE OF SEX.

A cock-sparrow,	a hen-sparrow.	A man-servant,	a woman-servant.
A he-goat,	a she-goat.	A peacock,	a pea-hen.
	{ a she-ass.	A milkman,	a milk-maid.
A jack-ass,	{ a jenny-ass.	A bar-keeper,	a bar-maid.
	{ a jenny.	A dairy-man,	a dairy-maid.
A man-cook,	a woman-cook.		

189. By what modes is Gender distinguished in English?

Exercises.

State the Gender of the following nouns.

Peer, lady, ambassadress, gander, friend, nephew, foundress, giantess, poet, co-heiress, damsel, Mayor, heroine, goddess, tiger, sultana, sloven, dog, whelp, desk, chair, faun, mistress, landlady, ewe, mare, stove, sheep, plank, wagon, chain, child, duck, Count, pitcher, prophetess.

Give the Masculines corresponding to the following Feminines.

Duck, Duchess, goose, Czarina, lass, mistress, widow, lady, daughter, mare, sorceress, executrix, aunt, governess, sultana, priestess, princess, belle, Jewess, Landgravine, patroness, sister, mother, testatrix, signora.

Give the Feminines corresponding to the following Masculines.

Administrator, father, hero, king, prince, man, Sultan, Governor, husband, widower, boy, nephew, man-servant, heir, abbot, Margrave.

THE CASES OF NOUNS.

190. Three Cases are usually assigned to nouns in English—the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective. Nom. *Bird*. Poss. *Bird's*. Obj. *Bird*.

Obs.—Some grammarians allow only two cases to English nouns, the nominative and the possessive, because the nominative and the objective are always identical in form. Others retain three, because the nominative and the objective always differ in use, and differ also in form in the pronouns. Ben Jonson admits only two cases; Wallis, none at all.

If three cases are recognized, and it seems necessary to receive three, it would be both judicious and consistent to admit the Dative and the Vocative also.

Those who reduce the number of cases to two, overlook the essential agreement between virtual and actual inflection.

190. How many Cases are usually assigned to English nouns? What are they?

191. The **Nominative Case** is the simple form of the noun, and is employed to name the subject of the sentence ; as, *The tree fell ; trees are vegetable productions.*

Tree and *trees* name the subjects of the sentence, and are in the nominative case.

OBS.—In a direct address or summons—as, *John, come here ; Boy, bring me the hoe ;* *John* and *boy* are ordinarily said to be in the nominative. They agree with that case in form, though they agree with it only partially in use. They are really in the Vocative Case, which is the case of calling, ordering, invoking, entreating, and is employed in imperative and exclamatory sentences, when the subject addressed is named.

192. The **Possessive Case** denotes possession, property, origin, or some other relation of dependence ; as, *the boy's whip, the boys' sports, the horse's hoof, men's shoes.*

193. The possessive case singular is formed by adding *s* with an apostrophe (*'s*) to the singular nominative ; as, *boy, boy's.*

But if the noun ends in *s*, or in the sound of *s*, and is followed by a word beginning with *s*, the apostrophe alone is sometimes used ; as, *Mars' hill, for conscience' sake.*

OBS. 1.—There is no absolute rule for the use of *s* with the apostrophe, or of the apostrophe alone. Euphony and precision, rather than grammatical prescription, determine the form to be employed.

The best modern usage favors such forms as *Mr. Jones's house, the witness's testimony*, in preference to *Mr. Jones' house, the witness' testimony*. We also say *the Joneses* rather than *the Jones'*.

OBS. 2.—The possessive inflection was, for a long time, supposed to be a contraction of the pronoun *his*. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and even earlier, it was customary to write, *the soldier his sword* for *the soldier's sword*, and *the dog his tail* for *the dog's tail*. But this explanation was entirely erroneous.

There was a common Anglo-Saxon inflection in *es* for the Genitive Case, which continued to subsist in early English, in the form of *es* or *is*. Chaucer speaks of *Christes Gospel* for *Christ's Gospel*, and “*beddis feet*” for *bed's feet*. About the same period, Trevisa separated the sign of inflection from the noun, and wrote “*to Hercules is peters*” for *to Herculese pillars*. Hence came both the corrupt usage *Hercules his pillars*, and the modern possessive singular.

194. The possessive case plural is formed by adding

191. What is the Nominative Case, and for what is it employed? 192. What does the Possessive Case denote? 193. How is the possessive singular formed? 194. How is the possessive plural formed?

an apostrophe only to the nominative plural when it ends in *s* ; but, if the nominative plural does not end in *s*, *s* with an apostrophe is added ; as, *the soldiers' camp* ; *the children's toys*.

OBS.—The rule for the formation of the possessive is really the same in the singular as in the plural, except that *s* never follows the apostrophe after plurals ending in *s*. The apparent difference of procedure in the singular and in the plural arises from the fact that plural nouns with few exceptions end in *s*.

195. The possessive case may often be expressed by the objective after the preposition *of*, or some other preposition. *A cat's tail* is equivalent to *the tail of a cat*. *A Winter's Tale* means *A Tale for Winter*.

But a noun after *of*, or another preposition, cannot always be converted into a possessive. *Pieces of silver* are not *silver's pieces* ; and we cannot say *the house's bricks* for *the bricks of the house*.

OBS.—The possessive and the prepositional forms are not always equivalent to each other. *The man's description*, means usually the description of something given by the man. *The description of the man*, means the delineation of the man given by some one else.

196. When two or more nouns closely connected together, or phrases made up of several words, are put in the possessive case, the possessive inflection is attached to the last word only ; as, *Beaumont and Fletcher's plays* ; *John, James, and Jane's books* ; *King Charles the Second's inglorious reign* ; *a man-of-war's equipment*.

OBS.—Either the words so conjoined constitute a compound name, or they denote a single possessive relation. Thus, we should not say *Cato* and *Cicero's houses*, to signify the house of Cato and the house of Cicero ; but we might say *Cato's and Cicero's houses*. *Cato and Cicero's houses* would mean houses belonging to Cato and Cicero in partnership.

197. The **Objective Case** of nouns is the same in

195. How may the possessive case be often expressed ? May a noun after the preposition *of* be always converted into a possessive ? 196. Where is the possessive sign placed when several nouns, etc., are put in the possessive ? 197. What is the form of the Objective Case ? and what does it denote ?

form with the nominative, and denotes the object of a transitive verb, or of a preposition; as, *He caught the ox by the horns; the house is for sale.*

Here *ox* is the object of the catching, and the statement is completed by adding the *horns*, by which the *ox* was caught. *Sale* completes the statement in regard to the *house*. *Ox*, *horns*, *sale* are in the objective case.

OBS. 1.—In completing a statement by extending the predicate a preposition is usually required before the noun; but not always; as, *They taught him grammar; my son has brought me a present.*

OBS. 2.—The objective case in English performs the duties of both a dative and an accusative case. The two forms existed in the Anglo-Saxon, and were partially retained in the earlier periods of the English. Remains of a dative case, and numerous instances of a dative construction, still survive. The rejection of the dative by English grammarians has led to the mistaken condemnation of many expressions, thoroughly idiomatic and perfectly correct; as, *Give it him, saddle me the ass, give Tom this apple.* *Him* and *me* are true datives. *Tom* is a dative construction, at least.

The objective case represents an accusative when it expresses the direct or immediate object; a dative, when it signifies the indirect or secondary object.

The double import of the case accounts for some verbs taking two objectives after them in the active voice, and for the occurrence of an objective after such verbs in the passive voice; as, *He told them the truth—the truth was told them.*

198. English nouns are thus declined (§ 164):

A PLANT.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	A plant.	plants.
<i>Poss.</i>	A plant's.	plants'.
<i>Obj.</i>	A plant.	plants.

A MAN.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	A man.	The men.
<i>Poss.</i>	A man's.	The men's.
<i>Obj.</i>	A man.	The men.

A WITNESS.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	A witness.	The witnesses.
<i>Poss.</i>	A witness's (or witness').	The witnesses'.
<i>Obj.</i>	A witness.	The witnesses.

THE MEN.

	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	The men.
<i>Poss.</i>	The men's.
<i>Obj.</i>	The men.

THE WITNESSES.

	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	The witnesses.
<i>Poss.</i>	The witnesses'.
<i>Obj.</i>	The witnesses.

193. Show how English nouns are declined, by declining *a plant*, *a man*, *a witness*. Decline *chair*, *lioness*, *child*, *paper*, *goose*, *father*, *watch*, *telegraph*.

Obs.—The extended and full declension of an English noun has been thus presented:

“Nom. *A Man*; Gen. *A Man's*; Dat. *A man*; Acc. *Man*; Voc. *Man*. *A man* (Nom.) may beat another *man* (Acc.) if he can; but it is a *man's* (Gen.) part to give *him*, that is, *a man* (Dat.), fair play. *Man* (Voc.), hold your hand. Here we have the agent or nominative that beats; the patient, or accusative, that is beaten; the person standing in the relation of possession, or genitive; and of giving, or dative; finally, in that of being addressed by another, or vocative.”

Quoted in Fowler's English Grammar, § 261.

Exercises.

Tell the Case of each noun in the following sentences.

Alexander wept. Cæsar conquered Pompey. Hannibal wintered at Capua. There is in scuis a sympathy with sounds. Addison's Cato is now little read. Greatness confers no exemption from the cares and sorrows of life. Othello's occupation is gone. The pomp, and pride, and circumstance of war. The world is a stage. The boat is John, and Joseph, and Thomas, and Henry's.

Give the Possessive Plural of the following nouns.

Fly, vultures, citizen, soldier, tree, servant, grass, lily, author, robin, hill, sheep, pity, mouse, nation, goose, linnet, women, surface, city, surgeon, sister, monarch, children, hen, scholar, princess, brother, father, mother, husband, wife, house, niece, nephew, oxen, sixpence.

Spell the Possessive Singular of the following words.

Puss, miss, seaman, woman, heiress, heir, spider, sow, cow, lady, boy, house, queen, bird, ox, conscience, surface, city, hero, tiger, poet, poetess, master, mistress, shepherd, raven, eagle, cat, kitten, child.

(For additional Exercises and Models for parsing Nouns, see p. 220.)

INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS.

199. The Personal Pronouns of the First and Second Persons receive inflection to denote Number and Case.

The personal pronoun of the Third Person is inflected to denote Gender, as well as number and case.

The Relative and Interrogative Pronouns *who* and

199. What do the inflections of the Personal Pronouns of the First and Second Persons denote? What is denoted by the inflections of the personal pronoun of the Third Person?

which are inflected to signify number and case; though they have only a virtual, and not an actual inflection for number. *What* is always neuter.

The Demonstrative Pronouns *this* and *that* have the inflection of number only.

The pronouns *one*, *other*, with their compounds *such a one*, *another*, *each other*, are inflected like nouns, when they are used substantively.

OBS. 1.—As the pronoun of the first person refers to a present or known speaker, and the pronoun of the second person to a present or known hearer, the gender of these pronouns is manifested on each occasion by the sex of the speaker or hearer.

OBS. 2.—As the relative refers to an antecedent, and the interrogative to a term afterwards expressed, the gender of each is determined by the gender of the word to which they refer.

200. The personal pronoun of the first person, *I*, is thus declined :

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>I.</i>	<i>We.</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Mine.</i>	<i>Ours.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Me.</i>	<i>Us.</i>

OBS. 1.—The question has been raised recently, whether there is not a real dative case in the declension of the personal pronouns. In the phrase, "*Rob me the exchequer*" (Shakesp., Hen. IV.), *me* is unquestionably a dative in sense, as it was also in form. *Him*, *her*, *them*, *whom* correspond in form to the Anglo-Saxon dative, and not to the accusative. We must, therefore, recognize a dative case in English.

OBS. 2.—A still more recent question is propounded in regard to the use of *me* as a nominative, and the propriety of such expressions as, *it is me*; *it will be me the next time*. Latham and Alford are right in considering the phrases to be idiomatic and more correct than, *it is I*; *it will be I*. The former rejects, the latter approves the corresponding forms of the third person, *it is him*, *it is them*.

201. The personal pronoun of the second person, *thou*, is thus declined :

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Thou.</i>	<i>You (or Ye).</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Thine.</i>	<i>Yours.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Thee.</i>	<i>You (or Ye).</i>

For what are the Relative and Interrogative Pronouns *who* and *which* inflected? What inflection belongs to the Demonstrative Pronouns *this* and *that*? What other pronouns are inflected, and how are they inflected? 200. How is the personal pronoun *I* declined? 201. Decline the second personal pronoun, *thou*.

Obs. 1.—In many American, and in some English Grammars of the English language, *my, thy, her, our, your, their* are given as possessive cases of the pronouns. This is altogether erroneous. They are adjective pronouns, and differ in use and construction from *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*.

Obs. 2.—The nominative plural, *ye*, has passed entirely out of use, except in ornate composition, poetical or rhetorical; though it still occurs among the uneducated. It is the true Saxon nominative.

In the literature of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, *ye* was habitually used for the objective plural; as, *I tell ye, I dare ye*, and it is still so employed by rustic populations.

Obs. 3.—The singular of the pronoun of the second person is rarely used in modern English, except in the invocation of the Deity, in personifications, in poetical and rhetorical expressions, and by the religious society of the Friends, or Quakers.

In English, the plural is always substituted for the singular in ordinary speech. When the plural *you* is substituted for the singular *thou*, it is a plural of eminence or dignity, and does not become singular, nor should it be parsed as singular. It always requires a plural verb; and remains grammatically plural, though referring to a single individual. The solecism, *You was very good*, has passed almost wholly out of use.

202. The personal pronoun of the third person is, *he, she, it—they*. It has three distinct genders in the singular, but only one form in the plural. It is declined as follows :

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., and Neut.
Nom.	He.	She.	It.	They.
Poss.	His.	Hers.	Its.	Theirs.
Obj.	Him.	Her.	It.	Them.

Obs. 1.—*His* is a possessive case only when used without a noun, so as to include the substantive meaning within itself; as, *That is his*. When joined with a noun, it is a Possessive Adjective Pronoun; as, *That is his cane*.

Obs. 2.—*Its* is an inflection of late introduction into the English language. It came in before Shakespeare, and is used fourteen times by him. It occurs only twice in Milton; *his* is used instead. It is not found in the original edition of the authorized version of the Scriptures, though *it* is used without inflection in its stead. In Exodus, c. xxxv. ver. 10-16, we still read—

“The tabernacle, *his* tent, and *his* covering, *his* taches, and *his* boards, *his* bars, *his* pillars, and *his* sockets,” etc.

This aids in accounting for the substitution of *his* for the possessive inflection.

His was the regular possessive for *it*, as long as this word was habitually written *hit* or *hyt*, as it is still sometimes vulgarly pronounced. For numerous examples of the use of *hit* for *it*, see Tooke, Div. of Purley, pp. 339-342.

202. Decline the personal pronoun of the third person, *he, she, it*.

OBS. 3.—Though *mine* and *thine* are possessive cases, they may be used after a preposition: *Your sack is in mine; my land is next to theirs.* *Mine* and *theirs* are possessive cases, dependent upon *sack*, *land*, understood from the subjects of the sentences; and to these nouns the prepositions refer. The construction is exactly analogous to, *your sack is in John's.* *My, their*, could not be thus used after prepositions.

OBS. 4.—There is a peculiar construction of the possessive case which must be recognized as correct, but which has not received any satisfactory explanation: "*This heart of mine will break;*" "*Sing to the Lord, all ye saints of His.*"

From the occurrence of the same construction with nouns—as, *that charming voice of Jenny Lind's*—it is plain that *mine* and *his* are possessive cases. It is hence supposed that nouns in the objective case are required after the prepositions, and *Quackenbos* suggests *possessing, owning*, etc., as the substantives understood. But this will not solve all the difficulties presented by such forms, and is inappropriate in others. The possessive form peculiarly denotes possession.

A hat of mine is simply one of my hats—*hats* being the noun that may be supplied after *of*. To this type may be assigned *all ye saints of His*—that is, of His saints. The objection, that "all saints" cannot be a part of "His saints," is logical, not grammatical, and is scarcely tenable on logical grounds, when speaking of "the innumerable saints of the Lord."

But no such explanations will suffice for such phrases as, *this heart of mine, this body of mine, this life of mine.* This exceptional employment of the possessive case is probably a surviving relic of the more ancient construction, when there were distinct forms for the genitive, dative, and accusative, and when these cases were regularly governed by prepositions. The pronouns are true genitives, after a preposition. Hence, *all ye saints of His* is exactly equivalent to, *all ye saints of Him*; and *this heart of mine* corresponds to *this heart of me*.

In Mulligan's Grammar (Struct. Engl. Lan., § 75, pp. 191-2; § 81, p. 239), are some very judicious notes on this subject. He omits, however, all consideration of the most enigmatical forms of the construction.

203. The relative pronouns *who* and *which* are thus declined:

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	Who.	Which.
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose.	Whose.
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.	Which.

OBS.—The compound relatives *whoever, whosoever*, etc., are declined like the simple relatives.

204. The declension of the interrogative pronouns *who, which*, and their compounds, is exactly the same as that of the relatives.

203. Decline the relative pronouns *who* and *which*. 204. What is the declension of the interrogative pronouns *who* and *which*?

205. The demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* are declined only by number.

SINGULAR.

This.

That.

PLURAL.

These.

Those.

Exercises.

Tell the Number, Gender, and Case of the Pronouns in the following sentences.

Whose is this image and superscription? Be ours the praise; be theirs the shame. These processes are experiments of mine: I hope that they will succeed better than yours or his have done. Whom shall we ask to aid us? You are mistaken in ascribing this letter to him; I am sure it must be hers. He felt for others' woes, remembering his own. It is strange that they should have been so soon overtaken by the consequences of their folly. There are some apples; bring me one, and divide the others among yourselves. They shared each other's sorrows, and wept each other's tears.

(For Models and Exercises in parsing Pronouns, see p. 220.)

THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

206. Adjectives in English admit of inflection only for the purpose of expressing Comparison, or different degrees of the quality denoted by the adjective; as, *great, greater, greatest*.

OBS.—In the Latin, Greek, and many other languages, adjectives are inflected like nouns, for the sake of distinguishing number, gender, and case, and of agreeing in form with the nouns which they qualify.

In English, adjectives receive no such inflections, or changes of form.

207. Those adjectives, which signify qualities capable of being increased, alone admit of comparison. Thus,

205. How are the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* declined? 206. For what purposes only are adjectives inflected in English? 207. What adjectives alone admit of Comparison?

great, wise, may be compared ; but not *Almighty, Omniscient*.

208. There are three degrees of comparison—the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative ; as, pos. *wise*, comp. *wiser*, superl. *wisest*.

OBS. 1.—The degree, in which a quality is possessed, is determined only relatively, and not absolutely, by the degrees of comparison. Thus *John* may be *taller* than *James*, but *Tom* taller than *John*. The *tallest* man in one company may be the *shortest* in another.

OBS. 2.—There are only three degrees of comparison distinguished by inflection ; but the relative degree in which any quality is possessed may be more precisely indicated by the employment of other words ; as, *The sick child is much worse to-day ; John is two inches taller than James ; Thompson is by far the tallest man in the crowd*.

OBS. 3.—There is a comparison of diminution as well as a comparison of augmentation. This is never formed by inflection, but by the use of the words *less* and *least* ; as, *less worthy, least worthy*.

209. The **Positive Degree** is expressed by the simple form of the adjective, and denotes simply the quality signified by the word ; as, *strong, wise, good*—*a strong fortress, a wise man, a good child*.

OBS.—The positive is rightly considered one of the degrees of comparison, for it necessarily implies comparison, but only by distinguishing things which possess the attribute indicated by the adjective from those things which do not possess it. Thus, the expression *a wise man* does not compare wise men together, but it contrasts the man who is wise with those who are not wise.

210. The **Comparative Degree** is formed by adding the termination *r* or *er* to the positive ; as, *strong, strong-er ; great, great-er ; wise, wis-e-r*.

211. The comparative degree is usually employed in comparing two things only, and denotes that the quality ascribed to both is possessed in a higher degree by the one than it is by the other ; as, *My task is harder than yours*.

208. How many degrees of comparison are there ? What are they ? 209. How is the positive degree expressed ? What does it denote ? 210. How is the comparative degree formed ? Give examples of the comparative degree. 211. How is the comparative employed, and what does it denote ?

OBS. 1.—An individual may be compared with a class, or with all the other individuals of the class to which he belongs; as, *Solomon was wiser than the philosophers*; *Solomon was wiser than other men*.

So the rest of a class, or a portion of a class, may be compared with one of its members; as, *Others were wiser than John*.

OBS. 2.—There is a remarkable and idiomatic use of the comparative with the article, as in the phrase, *The more, the merrier*. *The* is a dative or instrumental case—corresponding to the Latin *quo-eo*, and derived from Anglo-Saxon and Old English *thy*. The same construction is found in German and French; *je cher, je lieber*; *tant le mieux*.

212. The **Superlative Degree** is formed by adding the termination *st* or *est* to the positive; as, *strong-est*, *great-est*, *wis-e-st*.

213. The superlative degree is employed in comparing together all things contemplated as possessing the quality ascribed to them by the adjective, and denotes the possession of the quality in the highest degree in which it is possessed by any of them; thus, *Adam was the first man*.

This is the healthiest grape-vine of the seven—that is, of all intended to be compared.

Solomon was the wisest man—that is, of all men.

Aristotle was the greatest philosopher of antiquity—that is, of all the philosophers considered in connection with him.

OBS. 1.—It is customary to state that the superlative cannot properly be used when only two things are compared. Such precision is arbitrary, and is at variance with the practice of the best writers, and with the usage of the most cultivated society.

There is no impropriety in saying that *Cesar and Cicero were both statesmen*, but *Cesar was the ablest*. The use of the superlative implies that both were able. In the assertion, *Jenkins is wiser than Tompkins*, it is not alleged that Jenkins is wise. All that is stated is, that Jenkins has more wisdom than Tompkins, though both may be fools.

Unquestionably, the proper form for the comparison of two things is ordinarily the comparative, and for more than two the superlative. But the use of the superlative in the comparison of two things only, is not to be indiscriminately condemned.

OBS. 2.—It is a just rule that the thing to which the superlative adjective is applied, should be included in the class of objects with which the comparison is made. Yet Milton writes,

Adam, the goodliest man of men since born
His sons; the fairest of her daughters, Eve.

212. How is the superlative degree formed? Give examples of the superlative degree. **213.** How is the superlative employed, and what does it denote?

Adam was not one of his own sons, nor one "of men since born." Eve was not one of her own daughters. The phrase may be admired, but is scarcely to be imitated. Milton, however, should not be censured for catching a grace beyond the reach of rules.

214. The comparative and superlative degrees are formed by adding *r* and *st* to the positive, instead of *er* and *est*, only when the adjective ends in *e*; as *white*, *whiter*, *whitest*.

When the adjective ends in *y* following a consonant, the final vowel is changed into *i* before the inflections *er*, *est*; as, *pretty*, *prettier*, *prettiest*.

When the adjective ends in a consonant following a single vowel, the consonant is doubled; as, *sad*, *sadder*, *saddest*.

215. Adjectives consisting of more than one syllable are rarely compared by the use of the inflections *er* and *est*.

In most dissyllables, and in nearly all polysyllables, the degrees of comparison are expressed by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* to the positive; as, *honest*, *more honest*, *most honest*; *respectable*, *more respectable*, *most respectable*.

OBS. 1.—No precise rule can be given on this subject. The employment of either form, at least so far as dissyllables are concerned, is determined by euphony or by custom. Adjectives of one syllable, and dissyllables ending in *le* preceded by a consonant, or having the accent on the second syllable, usually receive the inflections; as, *young*, *younger*, *youngest*; *ample*, *ampler*, *amplest*; *profound*, *profounder*, *profoundest*. But we say also, *tender*, *tenderer*, *tenderest*; *dirty*, *dirtier*, *dirtiest*; and not *brittle*, *brittler*, *brittlest*. There is no settled rule.

OBS. 2.—Such phrases as *more honest*, *most honest*, are not true degrees of comparison of the adjective *honest*. They contain the comparative and superlative of the adverb *much*, and are equivalent in meaning to the proper degrees of comparison, but not in etymological character.

OBS. 3.—A few adjectives form the superlative by adding *most* as a termination to the comparative, or to the comparative or a presumed positive indifferently. They are, *nether*, *nethermost*; *lower*, *lowermost*; (*up*), *upper*, *uppermost*, *upmost*; (*out*), *outer* or *utter*, *outermost*, *outmost*, *uttermost*, *utmost*; (*in*), *inner*, *innermost*, *inmost*; (*hind*), *hinder*, *hindermost*, *hindmost*. *Topmost* is formed on the

214. When are the comparative and the superlative formed by adding *r* and *st*? What change takes place when the adjective ends in *y*? What change is required when the adjective ends in a consonant after a single vowel? 215. When are the inflections *er* and *est* discarded? How is comparison expressed when these inflections are not used? With what adjectives?

same principle from the noun *top*, used adjectively. So *foremost* is formed from *fore*.

OBS. 4.—*Less* and *least* are employed to denote degrees of diminution, in the same manner that *more* and *most* are used to signify increasing degrees of a quality; as, *less honest, least honest*.

OBS. 5.—*Better* and *best* are conjoined with past participles in the same way as *more* and *most* with adjectives; as, *This man is better known; that is best remunerated*. But *more* and *most* may be usually employed in the same connection.

216. Some of the most common, because most ancient, adjectives are compared irregularly.

POS.	COMP.	SUP.	POS.	COMP.	SUP.
Bad,	worse,	worst.	Little,	less, lesser,	least.
Far,	farther,	farthest.	Much, }	more,	most.
(Forth),	further,	furthest.	Many, }		
(Fore),	former,	{ foremost.	(Nigh),	{ nigher,	next.
Good,	better,	first.			nighest.
		best.			eldest.
Late,	{ latter,	last.	Old,	{ elder,	oldest.
	{ later,	latest.			

OBS. 1.—The irregularity of these comparisons is much greater in appearance than in reality, and relates rather to the present type of the language than to its primitive stages.

OBS. 2.—*Lesser* and *worser* are perhaps not really double comparatives, but they are certainly used and regarded as such in modern English. Double comparatives and double superlatives, whether formed by inflection, or by the aid of *more* and *most*, have been generally condemned as ungrammatical; yet they are found in all languages, and in the best writers in all languages. They are frequent in English, and especially so in the purest English, the Anglican version of the Scriptures, and in Shakespeare.

“And God made two great lights; the greater light to rule the day, and the *lesser* light to rule the night.”—Gen. i. 16.

Less would fail to convey the same meaning as *lesser*. So it is in speaking of “*the lesser lights of heaven*.” The moon is the *less* light; the stars are the *lesser* lights.

Byron says,

Athos, Olympus. Atlas made
These hills seem things of *lesser* dignity.

Lesser deepens the contrast.

In Shakespeare's *Hamlet* is found “our *more rawer* breath;” in his *Tempest*, “The Duke of Milan and his *more braver* daughter.” Can any objection be made to his *far braver* daughter? Can any objection be made to the one phrase which may not be extended to the other? We must not reprehend as ungrammatical what the usage of the best poets and best prose writers has sanctioned. There is frequent occasion to repeat the exclamation of Richard Taylor—“Alas, for the poor children who are doomed to be tormented out of their mother tongue by these grammar-makers!” (Add. Notes to Tooke, *Diversions of Purley*, p. xxviii.)

OBS. 3.—The double superlative stands on the same footing with the double comparative, but its employment is more frequent and consequently more familiar.

216. What Adjectives are irregularly compared? Give the comparisons of these adjectives.

"After *the most straitest* sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee" Acts, xxvi. 5. So—*The Most Highest God*; *The Most Mightiest*.

"We will grace his heels
With the *most boldest* and best hearts of Rome."
Shakespeare, Julius Cæsar, III. i.

"This was *the most unkindest cut* of all."—Ibid., sc. ii.

These double comparisons always convey a different meaning from the simple forms.

OBS. 4.—It is usually said that adjectives implying the complete or highest possession of a quality cannot be compared. This is not altogether correct. Some adjectives signify attributes so fixed and unalterable that increase or diminution is wholly incompatible with the nature of what is expressed by them. Such are, *Almighty, All-wise, All-powerful, Omniscient, Omnipotent, Infinite, principal, perpendicular, triangular, spherical, square*, in their strictest acceptations. But *true, perfect, complete, immense, chief, supreme, extreme, universal*, and most words of the like character, may be and are compared. In the Scriptures, even "*a far more abounding and eternal weight of glory*" is spoken of.

We find, and are not warranted in repudiating such forms as, *truest, chiefest, supremest, extremest, most immense, most invaluable, most excellent, more general, more universal*. Good writers will avoid their use, except upon rare and necessary occasions, but there are occasions when most of them may become necessary.

OBS. 5.—The adjectives, *prior, anterior, exterior, inferior, interior, superior, ulterior*, etc., are comparatives in Latin, but they are positives in English. They are not followed by *than*, nor is *former*. They should never be joined with the adverbs *more* and *most*.

OBS. 6.—The termination *ish* sometimes lessens the degree of the quality signified by the simple adjective; as, *black, blackish; white, whitish*. This peculiarity does not belong to the consideration of the degrees of comparison; nor do the other modes of modifying the intensity of the quality signified, through the intervention of such words as *much, somewhat, very, a little, a little more*.

Exercises.

Tell the Comparative and the Superlative Degrees of the following adjectives.

Mighty, sweet, able, generous, brave, warm, little, manly, red, precious, safe, glad, industrious, good, gentle, excellent, lovely, amiable, zealous, lively, old, ill, adventurous, discreet, rash, late, many, dutiful, active, eternal, external, wooden, yearly, severe, ignorant, perpendicular, matchless, colossal, square, right, beautiful, theatrical, decent.

Correct the following errors in Comparison.

Interestingest, manyer, mucher, baddest, littlest, more tall, hotter, livelier, beautifullest, bigger, excellenter, wisestest, extremest, more inferior, gooddest, graciouser, colossalest.

In what degree are the following adjectives ?

Circular, roundest, more agreeable, first, hinder, stronger, upmost, worse, utmost, less, milder, next, least, new, more, fewest, best, universal, elder, riotous, former, uppermost.

(For Models and Exercises in parsing Adjectives, see p. 220.)

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

217. Some adverbs are compared like adjectives, by means of the inflections *er* and *est* ; or by irregular inflection ; as,

Early,	earlier,	earliest.	Little,	less,	least.
Far,	farther,	farthest.	Oft, or often,	oftener,	oftenest.
Forth,	further,	furthest.	———	rather,	———
Ill,	worse,	worst.	Soon,	sooner,	soonest.
Much,	more,	most.	Well,	better,	best.

OBS.—All, or nearly all of these words were originally adjectives ; and adjectives in all languages are often employed adverbially. The adjective qualifies a substantive or noun ; the adverb qualifies an attribute or predicate, by whatever part of speech it may be formed.

218. Many adverbs admit the expression of degree by the employment of the adverbs of comparison, *more* and *most* ; as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely*.

(For Models and Exercises in parsing Adverbs, see p. 220.)

THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

219. Verbs are inflected or conjugated to denote Voice, Number, Person, Tense, and Mood ; as, *I strike, I am struck ; I am, we are ; I write, thou writest, he writes ; I am, I was ; I am, if I be*.

217. How are some Adverbs compared ? 218. How do many adverbs express increase in the degree of a quality ? 219. For what purposes are Verbs inflected or conjugated ?

Obs. —Most of the inflections of verbs in English are virtual, and not actual inflections; or the place of inflections is occupied by auxiliary verbs, as is the case throughout the Passive Voice.

220. Transitive Verbs have two voices, the active and the passive; as, *Cæsar vanquished Pompey*; *Pompey was vanquished by Cæsar*.

Obs. —No verbs except transitive verbs, or verbs used transitively, have a passive voice.

The reason of this is manifest. Only those verbs which transmit an action to an object, different from the subject of the verb, are capable of the reverse process of denoting an action experienced by the subject from a distinct agent, expressed or undefined. Unless the word *vanquished* were competent to signify that the defeat inflicted by Cæsar was inflicted on Pompey, the same word, under a different modification, could not be employed to signify that the defeat was received by Pompey. The transitive verb expresses an action which is completed in an object. In the passive voice this object becomes the subject of the verb, and suffers the action. What was declared by the active voice to be the act of an agent, is announced by the passive as the suffering of a patient. Hence arise both the distinction of the voices, and the difference of the designations.

221. Voice is the form of the verb which indicates whether the subject of the verb acts or is acted upon; as, *I ploughed the field* (act.); *the field was ploughed by me* (pass.)

222. The Active Voice expresses an action performed by an agent upon an object; as, *The horse kicked the man*.

The agent is also the subject of the verb, and the object completes the assertion (or predication) made by the verb.

Kicked is a verb in the active voice, denoting the action or act of kicking.

The horse is the agent by which the kicking is performed, and is the subject of the verb.

The man is the object of the kicking, and completes the sentence by telling what the horse kicked.

223. The Passive Voice expresses an action received or experienced; as, *The man was kicked*; *the man was kicked by the horse*.

220. How many Voices have Transitive Verbs? What are they? 221. What is voice? 222. What does the Active Voice express? 223. What does the Passive Voice express?

Here, the *kicking*, signified by the verb, is received or experienced by the man, and the man is the subject of the verb.

OBS.—With verbs in the passive voice either the agent of the action is suppressed, or is expressed indirectly through the intervention of a preposition. *The man was kicked* by something unmentioned; or *was kicked by the horse, by a mule, by another man, by several other men*, etc.

There are some exceptions to this, dependent upon a peculiar construction of the active voice of some verbs, or the peculiar case of the nouns and pronouns; as, *He was taught grammar*; *Grammar was taught him*. The explanation of this idiom is reserved for another occasion.

224. The parts of the passive voice are throughout formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be*; as, *I am hurt, I was hurt, I shall be hurt*.

OBS.—The auxiliary verb *to be* is always followed by the Past Participle in the formation of the parts of the passive voice.

225. The orderly enumeration of all the parts of the verb is called the Conjugation of the verb.

OBS. 1.—In briefly conjugating a verb, only its principal parts are mentioned, because from them all the other parts are formed by a uniform procedure. These principal parts, in English verbs, are the Present Indicative, the Past, or Preterite Indicative, and the Past Participle; as, *hate, hated, hated*.

OBS. 2.—The conjugation of the active voice is called the Active Conjugation; the conjugation of the passive voice is called the Passive Conjugation.

THE INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB FOR NUMBER AND PERSON.

226. Verbs have, in some of their parts, two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural; as, *He loves; they love*.

The nature of number in Grammar has been explained in connection with nouns. (§§ 165, 166.)

OBS. 1.—The parts of the verb which are affected by number, are only those which make declarations, or express commands, entreaties—those parts which are used, according to the language of many grammarians, in making assertions.

It is only those parts which can be used as finite verbs in a sentence, which receive the distinction of number.

OBS. 2.—In early English, the number of verbs was distinguished by a plural inflection; as, *I love, we loven*.

224. How are the parts of the passive voice formed? 225. What is meant by the conjugation of the verb? 226. What Numbers belong to verbs?

227. Verbs have three Persons in each number, the First, the Second, and the Third Person ; as,

Sing. 1st Pers. *I love.* 2d Pers. *Thou lovest.* 3d Pers. *He loveth or loves.*
Plur. “ *We love.* “ *You love.* “ *They love.*

The nature of person in Grammar has been explained in connection with pronouns. (§ 111.)

228. The **First Person Singular** has no personal inflection ; as, *I love, I loved.*

The **Second Person Singular** is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the first person ; as, *I love, thou lovest ; I loved, thou lovedst ; I hurt, thou hurtest.*

The **Third Person Singular** is formed by adding *th* or *eth*, or *s* or *es* to the first person ; as, *I love, he loveth or loves ; I go, he goeth or goes.*

In the plural there is no personal inflection.

OBS. 1.—These inflections are found only in certain parts of the verb, and they are not found in all verbs. *Must* has no inflection.

OBS. 2.—The inflection of the second person singular is almost entirely disused, in consequence of the employment of the plural of dignity. In a few verbs, it is formed by the letter *t* ; as, *art, wert, shalt, wilt.*

OBS. 3.—The inflection of the third person singular in *th* or *eth* has also now fallen into disuse.

THE TENSES OF VERBS.

229. **Tense** is the distinction of time, and is expressed by variations of the verb ; as, *I love, I have loved, I loved.*

I put your letter in my pocket now. I put your letter in the mail yesterday. I had seen your letter put in the mail-bag before I would leave.

OBS.—Tense and time are not equivalent terms. Tense is a technical term of grammar, and denotes time solely in connection with the different forms and applications of the verb.

227. What are the Persons of verbs? 228. What is the personal inflection of the First Person Singular? What is the inflection of the Second Person Singular? What are the inflections of the Third Person Singular? Has the plural any inflection for the persons? 229. What is Tense?

230. There are three principal tenses in English, Present, Past, and Future; as, *I write, I wrote, I shall or will write. I write now*—present; *I wrote yesterday*—past or preterite; *I shall or will write again to-morrow*—future.

OBS.—Of these three principal tenses, the English verb, in its simple state, has only two, the present and the past; as, *I write*, and *I wrote*.

The future is formed only by the help of an auxiliary, and is a compound tense.

Present, past, and future constitute the main divisions of time. We can conceive of no other divisions which are not subdivisions of these; but such subdivisions may be indefinitely multiplied, and are multiplied to a great extent in English by the use of auxiliary verbs.

231. There are only two tenses in English which are indicated by the inflection of the principal verbs. These are the present and the past; as, *I love, I loved; I seek, I sought*.

OBS. 1.—These tenses are both indefinite; that is to say, they indicate the present and past acts of *loving* and *seeking*, without defining by any limits the time of their commencement, duration, or conclusion. *I love* expresses the present act of *loving*, which may or may not have commenced at a remote anterior time, and may or may not be prolonged to a distant future. So, *I sought* expresses the past act of *seeking*, without making any reference to the point of time in the past when the act commenced or terminated.

The English verb has no specific future formed by inflection. The English future is formed by means of auxiliaries. This additional tense was a late introduction into the language.

OBS. 2.—This indefinite indication of time by the simple tenses of the English verb explains many of the apparent anomalies of construction in English, a simple tense being used indefinitely when other tongues would have recourse to a specific inflection for the precise exhibition of the time, or of the character of the time denoted. Thus the present indicative of the English verb may be used to signify present, past, or future time, according to the requirements of the sentence in which it occurs. *My head aches*—present. *Cæsar describes Gaul*—past. *He leaves the country by the next vessel*—future. Thus, too, the habit of doing anything is expressed in English by the present—*He lives frugally*.

232. The **Present Tense**, in its simple form, denotes an action or condition subsisting at the time of speaking; as, *I dig, I move, I sit; I am hurt, it is dug, it is written*.

230. How many principal tenses are there in English? What are they?
 231. How many and what tenses are indicated by the inflection of the principal verb? 232. What does the Present Tense in its simple form denote?

233. The **Past Tense**, or preterite, in its simple form, denotes that an action or condition is ascribed to the past time—to time past at the time of speaking; as, *I dug the garden, they moved the house, the letter was written.*

OBS.—The context alone determines whether the action or condition specified was completed, or was left unfinished.

234. The **Future Tense** represents the action or condition as yet to happen; as, *I shall depart at once, I will do it again, the man will die.*

235. The future tense in English is formed by means of the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*.

Shall in the first person denotes simple futurity; in the second and third persons it denotes compulsion or constraint also: *I shall go, you shall go, he shall go.* *Will* in the second and third persons denotes simple futurity; in the first person it signifies determination: *I will go, you will go, he will go.*

OBS. 1.—The correct employment of these auxiliaries constitutes one of the chief difficulties experienced in the acquisition and use of the English language. It is a very shibboleth to Scotch, Irish, French, and other foreigners. It is curiously illustrated by the anecdote reported of a Scotchman who was drowning, while an Englishman stood by without offering any aid, because the Scotchman cried out: *I will be drowned, and nobody shall save me.*

The *will be* drowned expressed a fixed determination. The *nobody shall save me* was a positive prohibition of all assistance. He would have been rescued at once if he had said: *I shall be drowned, and nobody will save me.*

OBS. 2.—The discrimination of all the cases in which *shall* and *should*, *will* and *would* should be employed, and the assignment of the special reasons which determine the use of these words in each case, would require a more minute and diligent investigation than our space affords. But a simple rule has been often cited, which suffices for the guidance of the learner in all ordinary instances:

In the first person simply *shall* foretells;
In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells.
Shall in the second and the third does threat;
Will simply then foretells the future feat.

OBS. 3.—The reason for the difference in the use of *shall* and *will* as future auxiliaries arises mainly from the fact that these words are used both as auxiliaries and as principal verbs. Used as auxiliaries simply, they denote futurity, and nothing more. Used as principal

233. What does the Past Tense, or Preterite, in its simple form denote?
234. What does the Future Tense represent? 235. How is the future tense in English formed? What does the Future Auxiliary *shall* denote in the different persons? What does the future auxiliary *will* denote in the different persons?

verbs also, they denote obligation or resolution in accordance with their Anglo-Saxon and Latin origin respectively.

OBS. 4.—In interrogative sentences *shall* or *will* is employed according as the one or the other is required in the answer.

OBS. 5.—*Should* and *would* are usually employed like *shall* and *will*. In conditional clauses *shall* and *should* are used to express simple futurity.

“All the shades of meaning cannot be known, and can only be learned by use from Englishmen.”—Hyde Clarke, *Eng. Gram.*, p. 88.

236. Besides the three principal tenses, other tenses are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs, to express modifications of present, past, and future time.

OBS. 1.—These tenses are exceedingly numerous, if all the compound tenses which may be thus formed and which are in habitual use, are enumerated and arranged throughout the moods of the active and the passive voice.

“English is so rich of tense-formulæ, that there are but few in other tongues for each of which it has not one of its own.”—Barnes’ *Philolog. Gram.*, § 476.

OBS. 2.—It is through this multiplication of the compound tenses of the verb that the English language derives much of its wealth of expression, its variety, pliability, and precision.

“They may talk as they will,” says Southey in *The Doctor*, “of the dead languages. Our auxiliary verbs give us a power which the ancients with all their varieties of mood and inflection of tense never could attain.”

237. There are three secondary tenses formed by the use of the auxiliary verb *have*—the Present-Perfect, the Past-Perfect, and the Future-Perfect; as, *I have loved, I had loved, I shall have loved.*

OBS.—These tenses denote that the action or condition is complete or perfect at the time to which the verb refers.

238. The **Present-Perfect Tense** denotes that the action, condition, or event is complete or finished at the present time; as, *The tree has fallen, the train has passed, the boy has lost his knife.*

OBS.—The action, condition, or event may have transpired at an indefinite past time, but it is spoken of as completed or perfect now. It always involves a reference to the present time, either by the relation of the action to the present time, or by the continuance of its effects to the present time.

This present import of the perfect is curiously illustrated by the blunder of a freedwoman, who wrote, “Gabriel *is dead, he has had the measles.*”

In order that the perfect *has had* might be correctly used, Gabriel should have recovered from the measles, and should have been living at the time of the communication.

236. Are there any other tenses besides the three principal tenses? How are they formed? 237. How many secondary tenses are formed with the auxiliary *have*? What are they? 238. What does the Present-Perfect Tense denote?

239. The **Past-Perfect Tense** denotes that an action, condition, or event, *was* completed or perfect, before something else, that is past also, had happened ; as, *He had lost his sight when his wife died.*

240. The **Future-Perfect** denotes that the action, condition, or event, indicated by the verb, will be completed or perfect before some other event which is yet to happen ; as, *I shall have done my task before sunset.*

OBS.—Here, both the completion of my task and the setting of the sun are spoken of as future ; but it is stated that my task will be completed or rendered perfect before sunset, which is the more remote future event. This form is rare in the Passive.

241. These six tenses, the Present, the Past, the Present-Perfect, the Past-Perfect, the Future, and the Future-Perfect, constitute the regular tenses of the English verb ; as, *I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love, I shall have loved.*

Three of these tenses are considered principal tenses—the present, the past, and the future : *I love, I loved, I shall love.*

Three of them are considered secondary tenses—the present-perfect, the past-perfect, and the future-perfect : *I have loved, I had loved, I shall have loved.*

Two of them are simple tenses formed by the direct inflection of the verb—the present and the past : *I love, I loved.*

Four of them are compound tenses formed by the employment of an auxiliary verb—the future, the present-perfect, the past-perfect, and the future-perfect : *I shall or will love, I have loved, I had loved, I shall or will have loved.*

242. The distinction of tense is applied also to infin-

239. What does the Past-Perfect Tense denote ? 240. What does the Future-Perfect denote ? 241. What are the regular tenses of the verb ? Which are the three principal tenses ? Which are the three secondary tenses ? How many, and what are the simple tenses ? How many compound tenses are there ? What are they ? 242. Is tense applicable to infinitives and participles ?

itives and participles ; as, *to love, to have loved ; loving, loved, having loved ; being loved, been loved, having been loved.*

243. The six regular tenses of the verb have tense-forms corresponding to them to express the continuance or progression of an action or condition.

These tense-forms are made with the auxiliary verb *be* and the present participle, and have been termed the progressive form of the verb.

They are, *I am making, I was making, I have been making, I had been making, I shall or will be making, I shall or will have been making.*

There is no progressive form in the passive voice.

OBS. 1.—All verbs do not admit the progressive form even in the active voice. When the signification conveyed by the verb distinctly implies continuance, the progressive form should not be employed. Thus it is improper to say, *I am remembering ; I was remembering.*

OBS. 2.—There is a peculiar construction in English, which is expressed by the progressive form of the verb, and has apparently a passive import. This idiom is exemplified by the expressions, *The house is building, the bread is baking.* These forms are correct and idiomatic English, notwithstanding all the objections that have been made to them. They were condemned by many grammarians, who proposed to use in their stead such forms as, *The house is being built,* which is a solecism, and wholly incorrect. This substitute was received with much favor for about a quarter of a century, but was never adopted generally by elegant writers, and has latterly been repudiated by nearly all correct authors, and by the best grammarians. This usage appears to be reviving.

The form is a contraction for the earlier expression, *The house is a-building*, in which *a* is an inseparable preposition, and *building* is not a participle, nor a part of a compound tense, but a noun. This is illustrated by the analogous construction which is found in the early English literature. *The house is on building*, that is, in the process of building. “*They fell in talkinge.*”

244. The two simple or primitive tenses of the English verb, the present and the past (preterite), admit a third tense-form, which is made with the auxiliary verb *do* ; as, *I do love, I did love.*

This form is called the Emphatic form of the verb, be-

243. What other tense-forms correspond to the six regular tenses of the verb? How are these tenses formed, and what are they called? Is there any progressive form for the passive voice? 244. What is the third tense-form of the simple tenses? What is this form called?

cause it is always used when the verb is employed with much emphasis.

OBS.—This form is usually employed, except in poetical and oratorical compositions, in interrogations and negations, because these are necessarily in some degree emphatic. *Do I love? Did I love? I do not love. I did not love.*

245. The tenses of the verb may be thus arranged :

<i>Present.</i>	Indefinite.	I love.
"	Incomplete. (Progressive.)	I am loving.
"	Complete. (Present-Perfect.)	I have loved.
"	" (Progressive.)	I have been loving.
"	Emphatic.	I do love.
<i>Past.</i>	Indefinite.	I loved.
"	Incomplete. (Progressive.)	I was loving.
"	Complete. (Past-Perfect.)	I had loved.
"	" (Progressive.)	I had been loving.
"	Emphatic.	I did love.
<i>Future.</i>	Indefinite.	I shall or will love.
"	Incomplete. (Progress.)	I shall or will be loving.
"	Complete. (Future-Perfect.)	I shall or will have loved.
"	" (Progressive.)	I shall or will have been loving.

246. There are thus fourteen tense-forms in the English language.

OBS. 1.—Besides the fourteen customary tense-forms which have been enumerated, there are other forms, which do not require systematic exhibition. Such are the various modifications of the future tense formed with the equivalent of a Gerundive; as, *I am about to write; I was about to write; I have been about to write; I had been about to write; had come to be; had begun to be*, etc.

OBS. 2.—To these numerous specifications of the distinctions of time by the modifications of the verb the English language owes much of both its elegance and its precision, when it is used with delicacy and discrimination. But to the same cause is also due much of the negligence and inaccuracy displayed in its ordinary employment, and much of the difficulty experienced in the acquisition of a thorough knowledge of its various powers.

OBS. 3.—It is to be remembered that the simple verb has only two tenses, the present and the past, both indefinite; and that it has only four tense inflections—the present, the past or preterite, the present participle, and the past participle; as, *love, loved, loving, loved*. The four tense-forms appear distinctly in the ancient, or strong, or irregular conjugation; as, *break, brake, breaking, broken*.

245. How may the tenses of the verb be arranged? 246. How many tense-forms are there in English?

Exercises.

Tell the Tenses of the Verbs in the following sentences.

I refer the cause to you. He is dying. He will make a short visit. The class has been studying well. His friends had hoped for his recovery. I shall be travelling when the roses come into bloom. I did carry your message. I have done all in my power. You will cut yourself with that knife, and I shall not be sorry, as you are so obstinate. You will have been taught greater caution when your years equal mine. The gardener was pruning the grape-vines when the storm commenced. Your messenger had forgotten your message. The neighborhood has been afflicted with a severe epidemic this summer; the physicians have worn themselves down by attendance on the sick. Nothing had indicated the probability of such a visitation. They do wish to learn. The boys are skating on the pond; many of them have been skating there since morning, and some will be still skating after nightfall. I did not hear the remark. The quicksilver freezes. I shall throw no obstacles in your way. I will call on you again. I was wishing to see you when you came in.

Change the tenses of the verbs in these sentences.

THE MOODS OF THE VERBS.

247. Mood is that variation of the verb, in form or in use, which denotes the manner in which the meaning of the verb is presented; as, *We love, we may love, if we love, (loving), to love.*

Obs.—In English verbs, mood, or the distinction of manner, is only very rarely indicated by change of form or inflection. It was more conspicuously, but still very imperfectly, done in Anglo-Saxon. The characteristic inflections had been in great measure lost in that language, and the process of rejection has been extended in English, and is still going on, as is proved by the gradual disuse of the Subjunctive Mood.

The moods of the verb in English are mainly distinguished by the relation of the verb to the sentence, not by its inflection, or by the employment of auxiliaries appropriated to this function.

248. There are five moods, the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Potential, the Imperative, and the Infinitive ; as, *I love, if I love, I may or can love, love thou, to love.*

To these moods many grammarians add the participial mood, *loving, loved.*

249. The **Indicative Mood** asserts directly, either in affirmation or in denial ; as, *I love him, I do not love him.*

The indicative mood is also employed in asking questions or interrogatively ; as, *Is the baby asleep? What fear we then? Do you love your parents?*

OBS.—In interrogative and negative sentences some changes are introduced by the transposition of the subject of the verb, by the employment of the adverb of negation, or by the use of the auxiliary *do* ; but the verb remains in the indicative mood.

250. The **Subjunctive Mood** asserts indirectly, or under a condition, and takes a conjunction, expressed or implied, such as *if* or *though*, before it ; as, *If it rain, I shall not go ; Though he slay me, yet will I trust in Him ; Were I Parmenio, and not Alexander, I would do so.*

OBS. 1.—The subjunctive mood differs from the indicative in form, only by the entire absence of all inflection ; except in the verb *to be*, and in the compound subjunctives formed with this auxiliary.

OBS. 2.—The subjunctive mood so rarely differs in form from the indicative, and requires such precision in its employment, that it has nearly gone out of use during the present century, and has been entirely excluded from many systems of English Grammar. But there is so much point and beauty in its judicious application, and it adds so greatly to the grace and delicacy of the English language, that it appears desirable to retain it as long as possible, and to reclaim it if it should ever be abandoned. Moreover, there are certain constructions in which it is almost equally impossible to dispense with this mood, or to fail to recognize it. *Beware, lest evil result. I must hasten, lest he arrive before my return.* Those grammarians who reject the subjunctive in English would maintain that the auxiliary *may* is suppressed in these cases. But neither the history of the language, nor the meaning of the construction, will justify this supposition. The rejection of this mood commenced early.

OBS. 3.—In place of a conjunction before the verb, the subjunctive is frequently expressed by placing the subject after the auxiliary in conditional phrases ; as, *Had I loved, were he loved.* So with the potential in the expression of a wish ; as, *May they fail.*

248. How many moods are there ? What are they ? What other mood has been proposed ? 249. What is the function of the Indicative Mood ? For what other purpose is the indicative employed ? 250. What is the character of the Subjunctive Mood ?

251. The **Potential Mood** denotes ability, power, inclination, obligation to do or to become what is signified by the verb; as, *I may go, I can read, I should not rebuke him.*

OBS. 1.—The potential mood is formed entirely by means of auxiliaries. As these auxiliaries are always in the indicative mood, if considered separately, many grammarians, including Lowth, Beattie, Grant, Webster, McCulloch, Hunter, Wells, Bain, have denied the existence of any potential mood in English. But, as these auxiliaries are employed solely in the formation of combinations of this kind, and as such combinations express modifications of the verb similar to those formed in other languages by specific inflections, it seems judicious to recognize them as constituting a distinct and legitimate mood. These combinations are very early.

OBS. 2.—The proper auxiliaries of the potential mood are, *may, might; can, could; would; should; and must.*

To these are frequently added, *ought; dare, durst; and sometimes need.* These verbs, however, may be more appropriately regarded as defective verbs, which are used after the fashion of auxiliaries in the formation of combinations similar to the potential mood.

252. The potential mood has four tenses, the present, the past, the perfect, and the pluperfect; as, *I may, can, or must love; I might, could, would, should, or must love; I may, can, or must have loved; I might, could, would, should, or must have loved.*

OBS.—The perfect formed with *can have* is not used in affirmative sentences. (See Butler, Engl. Gram., p. 84, note.)

253. The **Imperative Mood** expresses commands, entreaties, permissions, etc.; as, *Go; tell me; bless us.*

The imperative mood is rarely used in modern English except in the second person, singular and plural; as, *Go thou, go ye.*

OBS. 1.—The first and third persons are still occasionally used: *Be I your leader; be my plume your guide.* “*Witness the streets of Sodom.*”—Milton. For numerous examples of such forms in earlier English literature, see Mulligan, Struct. Engl. Lang., § 97.

OBS. 2.—The first and third persons of the imperative are usually formed with the aid of the auxiliary, *let*: *let me go, let him go, let us go, let them go.* But the auxiliary is itself a complete imperative in the second person.

OBS. 3.—In the simple English imperative, restricted to the second person, the pronoun is rarely expressed, unless it is employed

251. What does the Potential Mood denote? 252. How many, and what tenses has the potential mood? 253. What does the Imperative Mood express? In what persons is the imperative mood used in English?

emphatically. The reason of this may be readily detected. There is only one person habitually signified by the imperative in this form, and, since the plural of the second person has been ordinarily employed instead of the singular, there is really only one form of the imperative in common use, and only one pronoun to be used. This pronoun may be omitted without any risk of confusion, as the employment of the verb, uninflected as it is, indicates unmistakably its imperative character in all cases.

254. The imperative mood has only one tense in English verbs—the present indefinite.

255. The **Infinitive Mood** expresses the notion conveyed by the verb in a general and indefinite manner, without relation to any subject; as, *Boys love to play; to play is pleasant; he desired to paint his house.*

OBS. 1.—The infinitive is without any distinction of number and person. It is almost without any distinction of time, and hence is altogether indefinite, and presents the meaning of the verb without any of the limitations which characterize the principal parts of the verb. Two tenses, present and past, are assigned to the infinitive, but the use of these tenses is determined by the relation of the time of the action expressed by the infinitive to the time of the verb on which it is dependent. We say: *I want to write*, and *I wanted to write*; but, *It would have been better to have written yesterday*.

256. The infinitive readily assumes the construction of a noun; as, *To live is to suffer.*

Here both infinitives are used substantively.

OBS. 1.—The infinitive is used as a substantive, because it expresses simply the conception (or predicative signification) of the verb.

OBS. 2.—The infinitive given in the conjugation of English verbs is not the original or true infinitive, which was not preceded by *to*. This proper infinitive is still retained after most of the auxiliaries, and after some other primitive verbs, but without the terminal inflection; as, *Let me go; help me do it.*

OBS. 3.—Whether *to*, as the sign of the modern infinitive, is to be regarded as a preposition, or as an inseparable particle answering the purpose of an inflection prefixed, is a question which has not been yet decided.

257. The **Participle** expresses the meaning of the verb as a quality or attribute, after the manner of an adjective; as, *The lawyer continued speaking; he showed me the letter already written; the councillor, learned in the laws.*

254. What tenses has the Imperative Mood in English? 255. What does the Infinitive Mood express? 256. What construction does the infinitive readily assume? 257. What does the Participle express?

Where the acts of *speaking*, *writing*, and *learning* are ascribed in different forms and times to the *lawyer*, the *letter*, and the *councillor*.

OBS. 1.—The participle is so called because it participates in the meaning and functions of both the verb and the adjective; retaining the powers of the former in construction, and discharging many of the services of the latter. It often becomes a genuine adjective, as when it precedes the substantive: *The learned councillor*.

OBS. 2.—The present participle active, or a word identical in form, and habitually identified with it, is continually used in current English as a noun. Hence, some confusion has arisen in regard to the nature and characteristics of this part of the verb.

He is learning his lesson; you see the boy learning his lesson; learning is precious, but wisdom is above all price.

In these three sentences, there is nothing in the form to distinguish the nature and use of the word *learning*. In the first two, however, it is used participially; in the last, it is used substantively. These different employments proceed, in reality, from two entirely distinct parts of speech, which have ultimately coalesced into a single form. (See § 92, obs. 3.)

258. There are three participles in the active voice, *loving*, *loved*, *having loved*, which are respectively called the Present, the Past, and the Perfect Participle.

There are likewise three participles in the passive voice, formed by the auxiliary participles, *being*, *been*, and *having been*; as, pres., *being loved*; past, *been loved*; perf., *having been loved*.

OBS.—There are other combinations of the verb which have a participial signification; as the future forms *about to love*, and *about to be loved*; *is to do*, and *is to be done*. (See Tooke, Div. of Purley, pp. 676-681).

*** 259.** The participles are employed in a great variety of ways. They may be used to form the compound tenses of the verb, or as participles, as substantives, as adjectives, and often as infinitives.

Examples of the use of the participles for infinitives are presented by such expressions as *I carefully avoided seeing Schiller*—that is, *to see Schiller*.

Do you wish him gone?—that is, *to be gone* or *to go*.

OBS. 1.—Participles when used not as parts of the verb, but as

258. How many participles are there in the Active Voice? What are they? How many participles are there in the Passive Voice? What are they? * 259. How may the participles be employed?

other parts of speech, may retain the construction of the verb ; as, *The art of turning all things to gold.*

Obs. 2.—There is a curious construction of the present participle used substantively, which constitutes one of the characteristic idioms of the English language, and one of the most difficult to explain satisfactorily. This is exhibited by such expressions as, *The artist struck out one of his teeth, giving the appearance of its having been lost by age. In consequence of the offender's being an officer, the culprit was cashiered, not shot.* The participle in such constructions is a noun substantive, dependent upon a preposition, and limited in application by a possessive case attached. It retains, however, all its verbal characteristics. The import and construction of the noun and participle have coalesced in the participial. There is, consequently, a simultaneous double use of a single word, admitting two separate applications. This is very frequent in the English language, and results from the process by which it has been formed.

Exercises.

Tell the Moods of the Verbs in the following sentences.

Prepare your lessons. You should have been delighted. I would go, if I were asked. Study to be diligent. The boys discovered the errors which they had committed. She is singing. John might do better, if he were reproved. They inhabit a beautiful country. Lend me your knife to cut this string. Having praised him, he praised me ; having been praised, I praised him again. He labored to quell the riot. The captain has been promoted. The children wish to be excused. War is to be lamented. They were about to go, when I arrived. Let the boys learn their lessons, without disturbing them.

THE DIFFERENT CONJUGATIONS OF VERBS.

260. Verbs, in respect to their conjugation, are divided into Regular and Irregular.

261. The Regular Verbs are those which form their Preterite and Past Participle by the addition of *ed* or *d* to the Present Indicative ; as, *I paint, I painted, painted ; I move, I moved, moved.*

260. How are Verbs divided with respect to their Conjugation ? 261. What are the Regular Verbs ? When is *ed* used, and when is *d* used ? What change is made in verbs ending in *y* ?

If the verb ends in a consonant or diphthong, *ed* is the termination annexed; if it ends in *e* mute, *d* only is added, if it ends in *y* following a consonant, *y* is changed into *i*; as, *cry, cried, cried*.

262. The Irregular Verbs are those which form their preterite and past participle otherwise than by the addition of *ed* or *d* to the present indicative; as, *I bring, I brought, brought*.

Obs.—The division of verbs into regular and irregular has relation to the current usage of the English language, and is not applicable to its earliest forms; as what are now considered regular verbs are variations from the primitive forms of conjugation. This variation had, however, begun to establish itself in Anglo-Saxon times.

The irregular verbs are so called because they deviate from the customary usage of the present language in the formation of the parts of the verb. They are of two kinds, those which reject, contract, or alter the regular termination; as, *cast, cast, cast*; *bend, bent, bent*; and those which form the preterite by a change of the vowel sound of the present indicative, and sometimes by an accompanying change of the consonants. The former belong generally to the class of regular verbs, though somewhat irregular in form. The latter constitute an entirely distinct class, and represent the ancient forms of the language, preserving the remains of the earlier speech. To these the name of Strong Verbs, or verbs of the Strong Conjugation, has been given; while the others have been called Weak Verbs, or verbs of the Weak Conjugation. Hence, the irregular verbs are the oldest, the most important, and the most frequently used of the whole class.

A list of the irregular verbs is given at the close of the Accidence of the verb.

263. Some English verbs are defective; that is, they want some of the parts of the verb.

The **Defective Verbs** in English are the following:

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite, or Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite, or Past.</i>
—	—	beholden.	Ought,	ought
Beware,	—	—	Quoth,	quoth.
Can,	could.	—	Shall,	should.
Forego,	—	foregone.	Will,	would.
May,	might.	—	Wis,	wist.
Must,	must.	—	Wit, or wot,	wot.

Wont—Worth—“Woe worth the day!” may be added.

Most of the defective verbs, it will be noticed, are auxiliaries.

262. What are the Irregular Verbs? 263. What are Defective Verbs? What verbs are defective?

264. Some verbs are Impersonal ; that is to say, they have no distinctive person for their subject. Such are, *It irketh me, it repents me, me seems.*

Such verbs are, of course, defective. They are used only in a manner corresponding to the use of the third person, and either have or have not a subject or nominative expressed.

OBS. 1.—There are probably only two kinds of impersonal verbs in English.

I. With the pronoun *it* as an indefinite or indeterminate subject ; as, *It rains, it thunders, it snows.*

This construction admits of two explanations. It may be a reflection of the name of action of the verb ; as, *rain rains, snow snows, lightning lightens.* The term of action would thus be thrice named in such sentences as, *It snowed a deep snow last night.*

There is another explanation which has historical testimony in its favor. *It* may be considered to refer vaguely to the unknown cause—the divine agency—by which such meteorological phenomena are supposed to be produced ; as, *It rains—pluit ; pluit Jupiter—Jupiter rains, God rains. It thunders—tonat ; tonat Deus—God thunders.*

II. The only true impersonals in English are, *methinks, methought ; meseems, meseemed ; melists, melisteth ; melisted, melist.* We find also the form *him listeth.*

By sliding seas *me listed* them to lede.—*Surrey.*

These expressions signify *it seems to me, it seemed to me ; it listeth to me, etc.* In these impersonal verbs the objective words are in a genuine dative case : so in such forms as, *it repenteth me, pleaseth the queen, etc.*

OBS. 2.—There are several other locutions in which the verb appears to be used impersonally, but they do not present instances of true impersonal verbs, because all or nearly all verbs admit of similar employment. Such examples are furnished by the substantive, and some other verbs, in the singular or in the plural, preceded by the pronoun *it*, or the demonstrative adverb *there* ; as, *It came to pass that God did tempt Abraham ; there are men who would do it ; there occurred a sudden change.*

In such cases *it* and *there* refer to the nominative, or subject expressed after the verb.

THE SIMPLE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

265. English Verbs consist of two distinct formations, the Simple and the Compound ; as, *I love*—simple ; *I have loved*—compound.

OBS.—The simple formations proceed by the inflection of the verb itself ; the compound formations result from the employment of auxiliaries.

264. What are Impersonal Verbs ? What class do such verbs necessarily belong to ? 265. Of what two formations do English Verbs consist ?

266. These distinct formations may be exhibited under two distinct conjugations—the Simple Conjugation, and the Compound Conjugation of the verb ; or the two may be presented together as the Complete Conjugation of the verb.

Obs.—The complete conjugation, or that which is regarded as complete, is usually the only conjugation presented in English Grammars. To illustrate more perfectly the development of the English verb, and the contrast between its several parts, it seems expedient to introduce first the simple conjugation, which displays the verb in its primitive and naked form ; then to give the simple conjugation of the auxiliary verbs, and to offer afterwards a type of the verb completed in all its parts. In this manner the historical evolution of the verb, and the gradual growth of the language, are made apparent.

267. The Simple Conjugation of the verb **To love**, proceeds as follows :

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past, or Preterite.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>First Person,</i>	I love.	We love.
<i>Second Person,</i>	Thou lovest.*	Ye, or you love.
<i>Third Person,</i>	He loves, or loveth.	They love.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i>	I loved.	We loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i>	Thou lovedst.	Ye, or you loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i>	He loved.	They loved.

* The inflectional termination *est* is omitted in the second person singular of the Present and Past of *durst*, and perhaps of some other irregular verbs.

266. How may these formations be exhibited ? 267. Give the Simple Conjugation of the regular verb, *To love*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I love.	(If) we love.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou love.	(If) ye, or you love.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) we love.	(If) they love.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I loved.	(If) we loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou loved.	(If) ye, or you loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he loved.	(If) they loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Love, or love thou.	Love, or love ye or you.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Loving. *Past.* Loved.

OBS. 1.—These are all the simple parts of the English verb, and constitute the whole of its simple conjugation. All other parts of the verb, including the whole of the Passive Voice, are formed by the help of auxiliaries, and are compound forms.

The past participle is sometimes regarded as a passive inflection, but improperly, as is evident from its being found in intransitive verbs, which have no passive voice.

OBS. 2.—As all the other parts of the verb are formed through the intervention of auxiliaries, the simple conjugation of these peculiar verbs should precede the presentation of the complete conjugation of the verb.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB, *To have*.268. The Auxiliary Verb, *To have*, is thus conjugated.

* The Imperative Mood was formerly used in the first person ; as, *Be I ; love we*. But these forms have passed almost entirely out of use. For *love we our neighbors*, the current expression is, *Let us love our neighbors*, which is a compound formation, in which *let* is the second person singular imperative of the auxiliary verb *let*. The same explanation is to be given of the third person, singular and plural, *Let him love ; let them love*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I have.	We have.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou hast.	Ye, or you have.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He has (or hath).	They have.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I had.	We had.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou hadst.	Ye, or you had.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He had.	They had.

*First Future Tense.**

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I shall, or will have.	We shall, or will have.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou wilt, or shalt have.	Ye, or you will, or shall have.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He will, or shall have.	They will, or shall have.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I have.	(If) we have.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou have.	(If) ye, or you have.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he have.	(If) they have.

Past, or Preterite, Tense. †

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I had.	(If) we had.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou had.	(If) ye, or you had.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he had.	(If) they had.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Have, or have thou.	Have, or have ye, or you.

* The First Future Tense of *have* is a compound form, but it is introduced here because it is employed as an auxiliary in the formation of the Second Future of other verbs.

† The form *had I*, etc., is used in the place of *if I had*, etc., in conditional sentences.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To have.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Having.*Past.* Had.

NOTE.—The verb *To have*, when used as a principal verb, has the compound tenses and the complete conjugation which belong to other verbs; as, *I have had, I had had, I shall have had, if I had had, I may have, I may have had, I might have, I might have had*, etc.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB, **To be.**269. The Auxiliary Verb, *To be*, is thus conjugated.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I am.*	We are.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou art.	Ye, or you are.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He is.	They are.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I was.	We were.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou wast.	Ye, or you were.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He was.	They were.

First Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I shall, or will be.	We shall, or will be.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou wilt, or shalt be.	Ye, or you will, or shall be.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He will, or shall be.	They will, or shall be.

* An old form of the Present Indicative, *I be, we be*, is still sometimes found. *Wert* is also used for the 2d Pers. Sing Pret.

"Thou *wert* the throne and grave of empires."—Byron.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I be.*	(If) we be.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou be, (or beest.)†	(If) ye, or you be.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he be.	(If) they be.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I were.	(If) we were.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou wert.	(If) ye, or you were.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he were.	(If) they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Be, or be thou.	Be, or be ye, or you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.*Past.* Been.

NOTE.—The verb *To be* is also used as a principal verb, and then receives the compound tenses, etc., like other principal verbs.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB **To do.**

270. The Auxiliary Verb *To do* is conjugated as follows.

* The forms *be I, were I*, are used for the Present and Past Subjunctive in conditional sentences.

† *Beest* cannot be entirely rejected. It occurs in Milton: "If thou beest he."

270. Conjugate the auxiliary verb *To do*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I do.	We do.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou dost, or doest.	Ye, or you do
3 <i>Pers.</i> He does, or doth.*	They do.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I did.	We did.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou didst.	Ye, or you did.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He did.	They did.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I do.	(If) we do.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou do.	(If) ye, or you do.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he do.	(If) they do.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I did.	(If) we did.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou did.	(If) ye, or you did.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he did.	(If) they did.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Do, or do thou.	Do, or do ye, or you.

NOTE.—These are all the parts of this verb which are used as auxiliaries. The infinitive, *to do*, and the participles, *doing* and *done*, are not so employed. *Do* is also used as a principal verb, and then receives the complete conjugation.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB **Shall.**

271. The Auxiliary Verb *Shall* is thus conjugated :

* The form *doeth* also occurs, but only when *do* is used as a principal verb.

271. Conjugate the auxiliary verb *Shall*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I shall.	We	shall.
2 Pers.	Thou shalt.	Ye, or you	shall.
3 Pers.	He shall.	They	shall.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I should.	We	should.
2 Pers.	Thou shouldst (shouldest).	Ye, or you	should.
3 Pers.	He should.	They	should.

NOTE.—*Shall* has no other parts, and is never used now as a principal verb. It was so used in earlier times. Chancer says: "The faith *I shall* (owe) to God."

Should belongs to the Indicative Mood, though employed as an auxiliary of the Potential.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB **Will.**

272. The Auxiliary Verb *Will* is thus conjugated :

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I will.	We	will.
2 Pers.	Thou wilt.	Ye, or you	will.
3 Pers.	He will.	They	will.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I would.	We	would.
2 Pers.	Thou wouldst (wouldest).	Ye, or you	would.
3 Pers.	He would.	They	would.

NOTE.—*Will*, as an auxiliary, has no other forms. But there is a principal verb, identical in form, though differing in meaning, which is conjugated regularly through all its parts, *will, willed, willed*: Thou *willest* it—He *wills* it—They *willed* it so. Something of this original force appertains to *will* when used as an auxiliary in the first person.

Would belongs to the indicative, though it is an auxiliary of the potential.

272. Conjugate the auxiliary verb *Will*.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB **Can**.

273. The Auxiliary Verb *Can* is conjugated in the following manner.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I can.	We can.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou canst.	Ye, or you can
3 <i>Pers.</i> He can.	They can.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I could.	We could.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou couldst (couldst).	Ye, or you could.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He could.	They could.

NOTE.—These are all the forms of the verb *Can*, which is never used as a principal verb in modern English; though it was once so employed, and is still so employed in some of the provincial dialects of England, and in Scotland under the form of *ken*.

The past tense, *could*, like *should* and *would*, is indicative, though used only in forming the potential.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB **May**.

274. The Auxiliary Verb *May* is thus conjugated.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I may.	We may.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou mayst.	Ye, or you may.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He may.	They may.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I might.	We might.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou mightst (mightest).	Ye, or you might.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He might.	They might.

NOTE.—*May* is used only as an auxiliary for the formation of the potential mood of verbs.

273. Conjugate the auxiliary verb *Can*. 274. Conjugate the auxiliary verb *May*.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERB *Ought*.

275. The Auxiliary Verb *Ought* has the following conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I ought.	We ought.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou oughtest, or oughtst.	Ye, or you ought.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He ought.	They ought.

NOTE.—*Ought* is without any distinction of tense. It is used indefinitely to denote obligation, present, past, or future. It is not always included in the list of auxiliary verbs, and differs from all of them in requiring after it the infinitive with *to*, instead of the ancient and genuine infinitive without *to*; as, *He ought to do it*; *he ought to have listened to his friends*.

276. The Auxiliary Verbs *Let* and *Must* undergo no change, receive no inflection, and consequently have no conjugation.

NOTE.—*Let* is used as an auxiliary principally in supplying the first and third persons of the imperative mood; as, *Let me love, let him love, let us love, let them love*.

Must exists only as an auxiliary, and admits no alteration of any kind.

Let is used also as a principal verb, and has then the parts and conjugation of such verbs; as, *I let, thou lettest, he lets*; *I have let*; *I had let*; *to let, letting, let*, etc.

277. There are two other Defective Verbs, which are frequently included among the auxiliaries. These are *need* and *dare*.

OBS.—Both of these verbs have a double conjugation, being used also as principal verbs, though in a different signification from that which belongs to them in their auxiliary construction.

As a principal verb, *Need* signifies to want, to require, to stand in need of, and is regularly conjugated: *Need, needed, needed*.

As a principal verb, *Dare* signifies to challenge, to defy, and takes the regular conjugation: *Dare, dared, dared*.

When employed after the manner of an auxiliary, *Need* implies obligation or constraint, and is usually joined with a negative: *He need not do it, unless he like*. When used affirmatively, *need* is generally joined with *must*, and converted into an adverb; as, *He needs must do it*. This expression is often condemned, but without reason, as it is unquestionably idiomatic.

275. Conjugate the auxiliary verb, *Ought*. 276. Why have the auxiliary verbs, *Let* and *Must*, no conjugation? 277. What two Defective Verbs are frequently treated as auxiliaries?

When used like an auxiliary, *Dare* is an intransitive verb, and signifies the absence of any restraining fear: *I dare undertake it*. Even in this connection, it is often, not to say always, emphatic, and therefore entirely unlike an auxiliary.

“*I dare do all that may become a man;
Who dares do more, is none.*”—*Shakespeare*.

278. CONJUGATION OF THE DEFECTIVE VERB **Need**.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I need.	We need.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou need, or needst.	Ye, or you need.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He need, or needs.	They need.

NOTE.—This verb is wholly anomalous in form, in classification, and in use. Where its employment approximates to that of an auxiliary, it is better to use it equally in the present and in the past without any inflection, and to regard it as always a regular and principal verb when it is inflected. *Needs* is often an adverb.

279. CONJUGATION OF THE DEFECTIVE VERB **Dare**.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I dare.	We dare.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou dar'est, dar'st.	Ye, or you dare.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He dare, or dares.	They dare.

Past, or Preterite, Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I durst.	We durst.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou durst.*	Ye, or you durst.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He durst.	They durst.

NOTE.—These are all the parts of the verb which can be used in an auxiliary manner, unless the subjunctive form, which would differ only in the second person singular of the present, be also capable of such employment.

* So the second person singular of the past tense is usually given. The propriety of the form is questioned by Grant (*Engl. Grammar*, p. 69, note), who remarks: “Verbs being seldom used in the second person singular, it may be difficult to confirm by strong and decisive authority the inflexions of some irregular verbs; and, without this, we must not rashly forsake the common analogy.” The Anglo-Saxon and Layamon favor *durstist*. The Old and Middle English *durst*. *Must* has no inflection.

COMPLETE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.

280. The Complete Conjugation of the Verb embraces all the parts of the verb, simple and compound ; that is, both those parts which are formed with the principal verb alone, and those which are formed by joining auxiliaries to the infinitive or participles of the principal verb.

281. COMPLETE CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR TRANSITIVE VERB **To love.**

ACTIVE VOICE.

Love.

Loved.

Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1 *Pers.* I love.2 *Pers.* Thou lovest.3 *Pers.* He loves, or loveth.

PLURAL.

We love.

Ye, or you love.

They love.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1 *Pers.* I loved.2 *Pers.* Thou lovedst.3 *Pers.* He loved.

PLURAL.

We loved.

Ye, or you loved.

They loved.

Present-Perfect Tense.—(Present Complete.)

SINGULAR.

1 *Pers.* I have loved.2 *Pers.* Thou hast loved.3 *Pers.* He has loved.

PLURAL.

We have loved.

Ye, or you have loved.

They have loved.

280. What does the Complete Conjugation of the verb embrace? 281. Give the Complete Conjugation of the Regular Transitive Verb *To love*.

Past-Perfect Tense.—(Past Complete.)

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I had loved.	We had loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou hadst loved.	Ye, or you had loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He had loved.	They had loved.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I shall, or will love.	We shall, or will love.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou wilt, or shalt love.	Ye, or you will, or shall love.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He will, or shall love.	They will, or shall love.

Future-Perfect Tense.—(Future Complete.)

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I shall, or will have loved.	We shall, or will have loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou wilt, or shalt have loved.	Ye, or you will, or shall have loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He will, or shall have loved.	They will, or shall have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I love.	(If) we love.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou love.	(If) ye, or you love.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he love.	(If) they love.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I loved.	(If) we loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou loved.	(If) ye, or you loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he loved.	(If) they loved.

Present-Perfect Tense.—(Present Complete.)

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> (If) I have loved.	(If) we have loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> (If) thou have loved.	(If) ye, or you have loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> (If) he have loved.	(If) they have loved.

NOTE.—There does not appear to be any pluperfect of the subjunctive. When the pluperfect occurs in conditional clauses it seems always to belong to the indicative, as is the case with the two futures.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.*Auxiliaries: *May, can, must, ought.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---|------------------------------|
| 1 <i>Pers.</i> I may, or can love. | We may, or can love. |
| 2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou mayst, or canst love. | Ye, or you may, or can love. |
| 3 <i>Pers.</i> He may, or can love. | They may, or can love. |

*Past Tense.*Auxiliaries: *Might, could, would, should, must, ought.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1 <i>Pers.</i> I might, or could love. | We might, or could love. |
| 2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou mightst, or couldst love. | Ye, or you might, or could love. |
| 3 <i>Pers.</i> He might, or could love. | They might, or could love. |

Present-Perfect Tense.—(Present Complete.)Auxiliaries: *May have, can have, must have, ought to have.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| 1 <i>Pers.</i> I may, or can have loved. | We may, or can have loved. |
| 2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou mayst, or canst have loved. | Ye, or you may, or can have loved. |
| 3 <i>Pers.</i> He may, or can have loved. | They may, or can have loved. |

Past-Perfect Tense.—(Past Complete.)Auxiliaries: *Might have, could have, would have, should have, must have, ought to have.*

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | | | |
|--|----------|---------------------------------|----------|
| 1 <i>Pers.</i> I might, or could have | } loved. | We might, or could have | } loved. |
| 2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou mightst, or couldst have | | Ye, or you might, or could have | |
| 3 <i>Pers.</i> He might, or could have | | They might, or could have | |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 <i>Pers.</i> Let me love. | Let us love. |
| 2 <i>Pers.</i> Love, or love thou. | Love, or love ye, or you. |
| 3 <i>Pers.</i> Let him love. | Let them love. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present.—(Indefinite.)*Perfect.*—(Present Complete.)

To love.

To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Pres.</i> —(Indefinite.)	<i>Past, or Preterite.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i> —(Present Complete.)
Loving.	Loved.	Having loved.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The passive voice is formed by joining the past participle with the several parts, simple and compound, of the auxiliary verb, *To be*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I am loved.	We are loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou art loved.	Ye, or you are loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He is loved.	They are loved.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I was loved.	We were loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou wast loved.	Ye, or you were loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He was loved.	They were loved.

Present-Perfect Tense.—(Present Complete.)

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I have been loved.	We have been loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou hast been loved.	Ye, or you have been loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He has been loved.	They have been loved.

Past-Perfect Tense.—(Past Complete.)

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I had been loved.	We had been loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou hadst been loved.	Ye, or you had been loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He had been loved.	They had been loved.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1 <i>Pers.</i> I shall, or will be loved.	We shall, or will be loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou wilt, or shalt be loved.	Ye, or you will, or shall be loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> He will, or shall be loved.	They will, or shall be loved.

Future-Perfect Tense.—(Future Complete.)

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I shall, or will have been	} loved.	We shall, or will have been
2 Pers.	Thou wilt, or shalt have been		Ye, or you will, or shall have been
3 Pers.	He will, or shall have been		They will, or shall have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	(If) I be loved.	(If) we be loved.	
2 Pers.	(If) thou be loved.	(If) ye, or you be loved.	
3 Pers.	(If) he be loved.	(If) they be loved.	

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	(If) I were loved.	(If) we were loved.	
2 Pers.	(If) thou wert loved.	(If) ye, or you were loved.	
3 Pers.	(If) he were loved.	(If) they were loved.	

Present-Perfect Tense.—(Present Complete.)

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	(If) I have been loved.	(If) we have been loved.	
2 Pers.	(If) thou have been loved.	(If) ye, or you have been loved.	
3 Pers.	(If) he have been loved.	(If) they have been loved.	

POTENTIAL MOOD. *

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I may, or can be loved.	We may, or can be loved.	
2 Pers.	Thou mayst, or canst be loved.	Ye, or you may, or can be loved.	
3 Pers.	He may, or can be loved.	They may, or can be loved.	

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I might, or could be loved.	We might, or could be loved.	
2 Pers.	Thou mightst, or couldst be loved.	Ye, or you might, or could be loved.	
3 Pers.	He might, or could be loved.	They might, or could be loved.	

Present-Perfect Tense.—(Present Complete.)

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1 Pers.	I may, or can have been	} loved.	We may, or can have been
2 Pers.	Thou mayst, or canst have been		Ye, or you may, or can have been
3 Pers.	He may, or can have been		They may, or can have been

* The auxiliaries of the potential mood in the passive voice are the same as in the corresponding tenses of the active voice : *May, might ; can, could, would, should ; must, ought.*

Past-Perfect Tense.—(Past Complete.)

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1 <i>Pers.</i> I might, or could have	} been loved.	We might, or could have	} been loved.
2 <i>Pers.</i> Thou mightst, or couldst have		Ye, or you might, or could have	
3 <i>Pers.</i> He might, or could have		They might, or could have	

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1 <i>Pers.</i> <i>Let me be loved.</i>	<i>Let us be loved.</i>
2 <i>Pers.</i> Be loved, or be thou loved.	Be loved, or be ye, or you loved.
3 <i>Pers.</i> <i>Let him be loved.</i>	<i>Let them be loved.</i>

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present.—(Indefinite.)

Perfect.—(Present Complete.)

To be loved.

To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.—(Indefinite.)

Past.

Perfect.—(Present Complete.)

Being loved.

(Been loved?)

Having been loved.

282. The Irregular Verbs in English are conjugated precisely in the same manner as the Regular Verbs. The only difference between the two classes consists in the formation of the preterites and past participles, except in the case of the auxiliaries and similar verbs, whose conjugation has been already given.

The irregular verb *To weave*, has *wove* in the past tense, or preterite, and *woven* in the past participle; and is thus conjugated.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. I weave; thou weavest; he weaves, etc.

Past Tense. I wove; thou wovest; he wove, etc.

Conjugate in the same manner the Regular Verbs, *To praise, to persuade, to weigh, to judge, to drown, to hate, to mix, to offer.* 282. How are the Irregular Verbs conjugated? What are the only differences in conjugation between the regular and the irregular verbs? Conjugate the irregular verbs, *To weave, to begin, to break, to take, to feed, to go.*

Present-Perfect Tense. I have woven ; thou hast woven, he has woven, etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. I had woven ; thou hadst woven ; he had woven, etc.

Future Tense. I shall, or will weave ; thou wilt, or shalt weave, etc.

Future-Perfect Tense. I shall, or will have woven ; thou wilt, or shalt have woven, etc.

And so on through all the parts of the verb.

PROGRESSIVE AND EMPHATIC CONJUGATIONS.

283. Besides the common form of conjugation, English Verbs are conjugated in two other modes ; by the aid of the auxiliaries *am* and *do*, which make the Progressive and Emphatic Conjugations, but only in the active voice.

OBS.—These forms, in addition to their simple use, receive the modifications required for the interrogative and negative employment of the verb.

284. The **Progressive Conjugation** is formed by joining the parts of the auxiliary verb *To be*, to the present participle active of the principal verb ; as, *I am loving*.

285. The **Emphatic Conjugation** is formed by joining the parts of the auxiliary verb *To do*, to the true Infinitive Active of the principal verb ; as, *I do love*.

NOTE.—As the progressive and emphatic conjugations correspond throughout with the inflections of the auxiliaries, it is unnecessary to give all the parts of these forms, and it will be sufficient to present the first persons of the different tenses and moods.

The pupil should, however, be required to give the full conjugation of these forms.

283. What two other modes of conjugation are there besides the common conjugation? 284. How is the Progressive Conjugation formed? 285. How is the Emphatic Conjugation formed?

286. PROGRESSIVE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **To love.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. I am loving, etc.

Past. I was loving, etc.

Present-Perfect. I have been loving, etc.

Past-Perfect. I had been loving, etc.

Future. I shall, or will be loving, etc.

Future-Perfect. I shall, or will have been loving, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. (If) I be loving, etc.

Past. (If) I were loving, etc.

Present-Perfect. (If) I have been loving, etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.*

Present Tense. I may, or can be loving, etc.

Past. I might, or could be loving, etc.

Present-Perfect. I may, or can have been loving, etc.

Past-Perfect. I might, or could have been loving, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1 *Pers.* *Let me be loving.* 2 *Pers.* Be loving, or be thou loving, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be loving.

Perfect. To have been loving.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. *Past.* *Perfect.* Having been loving.

NOTE.—As the Progressive Conjugation is formed with the Active Participle, there is an inconsistency in supposing a Passive form. As it is formed with this participle and the parts of the verb *To be*, the passive form would be identical with the active. Such a form, however, does apparently exist in some verbs. (See § 243, Obs. 2.)

* There are the same auxiliaries in the Potential Mood of the Progressive Form as in the corresponding tenses of the same mood in the common conjugation.

287. EMPHATIC CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **To love.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. I do love, etc.*Past.* I did love, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. (If) I do love, etc.*Past.* (If) I did love, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2 *Pers.* Do love, or do thou love, etc.

NOTE.—There are no other parts of the Emphatic Conjugation of the verb. It is very doubtful whether the Past Subjunctive in the Emphatic form is ever used, or can be used with propriety.

OBS. 1.—There appears to be no passive form of the emphatic conjugation.

OBS. 2.—The emphatic conjugation in the English is of singular advantage.

You cannot dread an honorable death?
I do dread it.

“This is one of those phraseologies which no language can fully express, which does not employ genuine (*auxiliary*) verbs.”—McCulloch, *Engl. Gram.*, p. 72, note.

288. These three forms of conjugation, the Common, the Progressive, and the Emphatic, are all of an affirmative character, as already given.

But each of these forms may be used in asking questions, or in giving denials; that is to say, they are used interrogatively and negatively.

OBS. 1.—These diverse applications of the verb do not vary the forms of the respective conjugations, nor introduce any alterations into their constituent parts. They only affect the order of the parts among themselves, or introduce a new element among them by an adverb of negation, or modify them in both of these ways, when the verb is used both interrogatively and negatively.

OBS. 2.—As the forms of these several conjugations are not altered, it is needless to repeat at length the whole of the different conjugations for the purpose of illustrating their interrogative and nega-

287. Repeat, or write out the emphatic conjugation of the verb *To love*.
 288. What is the character of the Common, the Progressive, and the Emphatic Conjugations? In what other modes may each of these forms be employed?

tive employment. It will be enough to exhibit the interrogative and negative forms in the first person only, and the conjugation may be completed in the appropriate manner by the pupil.

The teacher should, however, go through the complete forms before the class, so as to guide them in their studies.

OBS. 3.—Each of the three forms of conjugation may be employed interrogatively, or negatively, or both interrogatively and negatively, though the tendency of the language is to prefer some forms to others. Thus, in asking questions the emphatic form is preferred to the common conjugation; as, *Do I love?* rather than *Love I?*

289. A verb is employed interrogatively, and takes the interrogative form, when it is used in asking questions; as, *Will he go? Has he gone? Do I see?*

290. A verb is used negatively, and takes the negative form, when it is used in denying or refusing; as, *He will not go, he has not gone, you shall not go.*

291. A verb is used both interrogatively and negatively, and takes the double form of interrogation and negation, when it is used in asking questions, with the expectation or possibility of a negative answer; as, *Will he not go? Has he not gone?*

292. The indicative and potential moods can alone be used in asking questions, or interrogatively; as, *Did you write? May I see it?*

293. All parts of the verb may be used negatively; as, *I am not, if I be not, I may not go, do not go, not to know, not knowing.*

294. Only those parts of the verb can be used interrogatively and negatively which may be used interrogatively—that is, the indicative and potential moods; as, *Did I not tell you? May I not justly conclude?*

289. When is a verb employed interrogatively, and in the interrogative form? 290. When is a verb used negatively, and in the negative form? 291. When is a verb used both interrogatively and negatively? 292. What moods are alone used in asking questions, or interrogatively? 293. What parts of the verb may be used negatively? 294. What parts of the verb may be used both interrogatively and negatively?

295. A verb is conjugated interrogatively by placing the pronoun or other subject after the verb, or after the first auxiliary, instead of before it; as, *Loves he? Does he love?*

OBS.—The common conjugation of the verb is rarely used in the simple tenses (present and past indicative), except in poetry, oratory, and impassioned utterance.

296. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *To love*, USED INTERROGATIVELY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. Love I? Am I loving? or, Do I love? etc.

Past Tense. Loved I? Was I loving? or, Did I love? etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. Have I loved? Have I been loving? etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. Had I loved? Had I been loving? etc.

Future Tense. Shall I, or will I love? Shall I, or will I be loving? etc.

Future-Perfect Tense. Shall I, or will I have loved? Shall I, or will I have been loving? etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense. May I, or can I love? May I, or can I be loving? etc.

Past Tense. Might I, or could I love? Might I, or could I be loving? etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. May I, or can I have loved? May I, or can I have been loving? etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. Might I, or could I have loved? Might I, or could I have been loving? etc.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Tense. Am I loved? etc.

Past Tense. Was I loved? etc.

295. How is a verb conjugated interrogatively? 296. Conjugate the verb *To love*, interrogatively.

Present-Perfect Tense. Have I been loved? etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. Had I been loved? etc.

Future Tense. Shall I, or will I be loved? etc.

Future-Perfect Tense. Shall I, or will I have been loved? etc.

297. A verb is conjugated negatively by placing the adverb of negation, *not*, after the verb in the simple tenses, and after the first auxiliary in the compound tenses; but the adverb of negation precedes the infinitive and the participles; as, *I love not, I do not love; not to love, not loving.*

OBS.—The emphatic conjugation is preferred to the common form in the simple tenses; but the use of the common form is not as strictly confined to poetry, oratory, and similar styles of composition, as in the interrogative forms.

298. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **To love**, USED NEGATIVELY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. I love not, I am not loving, or I do not love, etc.

Past Tense. I loved not, I was not loving, or I did not love, etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. I have not loved, or I have not been loving, etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. I had not loved, or I had not been loving, etc. .

Future Tense. I shall, or will not love, or I shall, or will not be loving, etc.

Future-Perfect Tense. I shall, or will not have loved, or I shall, or will not have been loving, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. (If) I love not, be not loving, or do not love, etc.

297. How is a verb conjugated negatively? 298. Repeat, or write out the conjugation of the verb *To love*, used negatively.

Past Tense. (If) I loved not, were not loving, or did not love, etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. (If) I have not loved, or have not been loving, etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense. I may, or cannot love, or I may, or cannot be loving, etc.

Past Tense. I might, or could not love, or I might, or could not be loving, etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. I may, or cannot have loved, or I may, or cannot have been loving, etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. I might, or could not have loved, or I might, or could not have been loving, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2 Pers. { Love not, be not loving, or do not love, etc.
 { Love thou not, be not thou loving, or do not thou love, etc.
 { Love not thou, be not thou loving, or do not thou love, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Not to love. *Perfect.* Not to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Not loving. *Past.* Not loved. *Perfect.* Not having loved.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. I am not loved, etc.

Past Tense. I was not loved, etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. I have not been loved, etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. I had not been loved, etc.

Future Tense. I shall, or will not be loved, etc.

Future-Perfect Tense. I shall, or will not have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. (If) I be not loved, etc.

Past Tense. (If) I were not loved, etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. (If) I have not been loved, etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense. I may, or cannot be loved, etc.

Past Tense. I might, or could not be loved, etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. I may, or cannot have been loved, etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. I might, or could not have been loved, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Not to be loved. *Perfect.* Not to have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Not being loved. *Past.* (Not been loved?) *Perf.* Not having been loved.

299. A verb is conjugated both interrogatively and negatively by placing the pronoun or other nominative followed by *not*, after the verb in the simple tenses, and after the first auxiliary in the compound tenses; as,
Love I not my country? Do I not love my country?

OBS. The position of the negative abverb, *not*, before or after the pronoun or other nominative in sentences which are both interrogative and negative, is not absolutely determined; but may be varied as euphony or emphasis may require.

300. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **To love**, USED BOTH INTERROGATIVELY AND NEGATIVELY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD,

Present Tense. Love I not? Am I not loving? or, Do I not love? etc.

Past Tense. Loved I not? Was I not loving? or, Did I not love? etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. Have I not loved? or, Have I not been loving? etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. Had I not loved? or, Had I not been loving? etc.

Future Tense. Shall, or will I not love? or, Shall, or will I not be loving? etc.

299. How is a verb conjugated both interrogatively and negatively? 300. Conjugate the verb *To love*, used both interrogatively and negatively.

Future-Perfect Tense. Shall, or will I not have loved? or, Shall, or will I not have been loving? etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense. May I, or can I not love? May I, or can I not be loving? etc.

Past Tense. Might I, or could I not love? Might I, or could I not be loving? etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. May I, or can I not have loved? May I, or can I not have been loving? etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. Might I, or could I not have loved? Might I, or could I not have been loving? etc.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. Am I not loved? etc.

Past Tense. Was I not loved? etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. Have I not been loved? etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. Had I not been loved? etc.

Future Tense. Shall I, or will I not be loved? etc.

Future-Perfect Tense. Shall I, or will I not have been loved? etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense. May I, or can I not be loved? etc.

Past Tense. Might I, or could I not be loved? etc.

Present-Perfect Tense. May I, or can I not have been loved? etc.

Past-Perfect Tense. Might I, or could I not have been loved? etc.

Exercises.

Conjugate, according to the Progressive and Emphatic Conjugations,

The Regular Verbs, *To praise, to persuade, to weigh, to judge, to drown, to hate, and to offer;*

And the Irregular Verbs, *To break, to take, to slay, to feed, to go, and to weave.*

Conjugate the same verbs interrogatively and negatively, and both interrogatively and negatively.

THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

301. The following verbs are conjugated irregularly, in the manner indicated.

NOTE.—Those parts of the verbs which are also employed in the regular form are marked with the letter R. In some of these verbs the regular form is most common ; in others the irregular. Obsolete forms are italicized.

OBS.—The irregularities which have been introduced into the language, by the affectation of particular authors, without producing any permanent effect, are not noticed.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.	Burst,	burst,	burst.
Am,	was,	been.	Buy,	bought,	bought.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Cast,	cast,	cast.
Awake,	awoke, (R.)	{ awaken, (R.)	Catch,	caught, (R.)	caught, (R.)
Bear, <i>to</i> <i>bring forth</i>	{ bore, <i>bare</i> ,	born.	Chide,	{ chid, <i>chode</i> ,	chidden, chid.
Bear, <i>to</i> <i>carry</i> ,	{ bore, <i>bare</i> ,	borne.	Choose,	chose,	chosen,
Beat,	beat,	{ beat, beaten.	Cleave,	{ clove, <i>to split</i> , { <i>clave</i> , cleft,	cloven, cleft.
Become,	became,	become.	Cleave,	{ <i>clave</i> , (R.)	cleaved.
Begin,	began,	begun.	<i>to adhere</i> ,		
Behold,	beheld,	{ beheld, <i>beholden</i> .	Climb,	<i>clomb</i> , (R.)	climbed.
Bend,	bent, (R.)	bent, (R.)	Cling,	clung,	clung.
Bereave,	bereft, (R.)	bereft, (R.)	Clothe,	clad, (R.)	clad, (R.)
Beseech,	{ besought, (R.)	besought, (R.)	Come,	came,	come
Bid,	bade, bid,	bidden, bid.	Cost,	cost,	cost.
Bind,	bound,	bound.	Creep,	crept,	crept.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.	Crow,	crew, (R.)	crowed.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Cut,	cut,	cut.
Bless,	blest, (R.)	blest, (R.)	Dare,	{	
Blow,	blew,	blown.	<i>to venture</i> ,	durst,	durst.
Break,	{ broke, } { <i>brake</i> , }	broken.	Deal,	dealt, (R.)	dealt, (R.)
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Dig,	dug,	dug.
Bring,	brought,	brought.	Do,	did,	done.
Build,	built, (R.)	built, (R.)	Draw,	drew,	drawn.
			Drink,	{ drank, drunk,	drunken, drunk.
			Drive,	{ drove, } { <i>drave</i> , }	driven.
			Dwell,	dwelt, (R.)	dwelt, (R.)

301. Give the short conjugation of the Irregular Verbs—that is, state or write down the Present, the Past, and the Past Participle. In oral examinations, the teacher should give the Present, and the pupil should give the Past Tense and Past Participle.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Eat,	ate,	eaten.	Meet,	met,	met.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.	Mow,	mowed,	mown, (R.)
Feed,	fed,	fed.	Pay,	paid,	paid.
Feel,	felt,	felt.	Pen, <i>to</i>	{ pent,	pent.
Fight,	fought,	fought.	<i>enclose,</i>		
Find,	found,	found.	Prove,	proved,	{ proved,
Flee,	fled,	fled.			<i>proven.</i>
Fling,	flung,	flung.	Put,	put,	put.
Fly,	flew,	flown.	Quit,	quit, (R.)	quit, (R.)
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten.	Rap,	rapped,	rapt, (R.)
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.	Read,	read,	read.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.	Rend,	rent, (R.)	rent, (R.)
Get,	got, <i>gat,</i>	got, gotten.	Rid,	rid,	{ rid,
Gild,	gilt, (R.)	gilt, (R.)			<i>ridden.</i>
Gird,	girt, (R.)	girt, (R.)	Ride,	rode, <i>rid,</i>	ridden.
Give,	gave,	given.	Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Go,	went,	gone.	Rise,	rose,	risen.
Grave,	graved,	graven, (R.)	Rive,	rove, (R.)	riven.
Grind,	ground,	ground.	Rot,	rotted,	rotten, (R.)
Grow,	grew,	grown.	Run,	ran,	run.
Hang,	hung, (R.)	hung, (R.)	Saw,	sawed,	sawn, (R.)
Have,	had,	had.	See,	saw,	seen.
Help,	{ helped, }	<i>holpen</i> , (R.)	Seek,	sought,	sought.
	<i>help</i> ,		Seethe,	sod, (R.)	sodden, (R.)
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, (R.)	Sell,	sold,	sold.
Hide,	hid,	hidden.	Send,	sent,	sent.
Hit,	hit,	hit.	Set,	set,	set.
Hold,	held,	{ held,	Sew,	sewed,	sewn.
		<i>holden.</i>	Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.	Shape,	shaped,	shapen, (R.)
Keep,	kept,	kept.	Shear,	sheared,	shorn, (R.)
Kneel,	knelt, (R.)	knelt, (R.)	Shed,	shed,	shed.
Knit,	knit,	knit.	Shine,	shone, (R.)	shone, (R.)
Know,	knew,	known.	Shoe,	shod,	{ shod,
Lade,	laded,	laden.			<i>shodden.</i>
Lay,	laid,	laid.	Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Lead,	led,	led.	{ Show,	showed,	shown.
Learn,	learnt, (R.)	learnt, (R.)	{ Shew,	shewed,	shewn.
Leave,	left,	left.	Shred,	shred, (R.)	shred, (R.)
Lend,	lent,	lent.	Shrink,	{ shrank,	shrunk,
Let,	let,	let.		<i>shrunk,</i>	<i>shrunk.</i>
Lie, <i>to rest,</i>	lay,	lain, <i>lien.</i>	Strive,	strove, (R.)	striven, (R.)
Lift,	lift, (R.)	lift, (R.)	Shut,	shut,	shut.
Light,	lit, (R.)	lit, (R.)	Sing,	sang, sung,	sung.
Load,	loaded,	<i>loaden</i> , (R.)	Sink,	sank, sunk,	{ sunken,
Lose,	lost,	lost.			<i>sunk.</i>
Make,	made,	made.	Sit,	sat, <i>sate,</i>	sat.
Mean,	meant,	meant.	Slay,	slew,	slain.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Sleep,	slept,	slept.	Strike,	struck,	{ struck, stricken.
Slide,	slid,	{ slid. slidden.	String,	strung,	strung.
Sling,	slang, slung,	slung.	Strive,	strove,	striven.
Slink,	{ slank, slunk,	slunk, slunken.	Swear,	{ <i>sware</i> , swore,	{ sworn.
Slit,	slit, (R.)	slit, (R.)	Sweat,	sweat, (R.)	sweat, (R.)
Smell,	smelt, (R.)	smelt, (R.)	Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.	Swell,	swelled,	swollen.
Sow,	sowed,	sown.	Swim,	{ swam, swum,	{ swum.
Speak,	{ spoke, <i>spake</i> ,	{ spoken.	Swing,	{ swang, swung,	{ swung.
Speed,	sped,	sped.	Take,	took,	taken.
Spend,	spent,	spent.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Spill,	spilt, (R.)	spilt, (R.)	Tear,	tore, <i>tare</i> ,	torn.
Spin,	spun, <i>span</i> ,	spun.	Tell,	told,	told.
Spit,	spit, <i>spat</i> ,	spit.	Think,	thought,	thought.
Split,	split, (R.)	split.	Thrive,	throve, (R.)	thriven, (R.)
Spread,	spread,	spread.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Spring,	{ sprang, sprung,	{ sprung.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Stand,	stood,	stood.	Tread,	trod, <i>trode</i> ,	trodden.
Stave,	stove, (R.)	stove, (R.)	Wax,	waxed,	waxen, (R.)
Stay,	staid,	staid.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.	Weave,	wove,	woven.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Sting,	{ stung, <i>stang</i> .	{ stung.	Wet,	wet, (R.)	wet, (R.)
Stink,	{ stank, stunk,	stunk, stunken.	Win,	won,	won.
{ Strew,	strewed,	strewn, (R.)	Wind,	wound, (R.)	wound.
{ Strow,	strowed,	strown, (R.)	Work,	{ wrought, (R.)	{ wrought, (R.)
Stride,	{ strode, strid,	{ stridden.	Wrap,	wrapped,	wrapt, (R.)
			Wring,	wrung, (R.)	wrung, (R.)
			Write,	{ wrote, <i>writ</i> ,	{ written, <i>writ</i> .

Obs.—Utterly irregular as the conjugation of these verbs appears to be, when they are arranged in an alphabetical list, they are all formed in accordance with a few principles diversely applied, and may be exhibited under a systematic arrangement in a few distinct classes.

I. Verbs of primitive formation, which are conjugated by changing the vowel sound, and sometimes the consonants of the present indicative, in the preterite and past participle; as, *Take, took, taken; slay, slew, slain; seek, sought, sought*.

Some of these verbs retain, and others have lost, or never possessed the ancient participial termination in *-en*.

II. Verbs of contracted conjugation.

The regular inflection in *ed* or *d* is either omitted altogether in some verbs ending in *d* or *t*—as, *Burst, burst, burst; cast, cast, cast*; or, in some verbs ending in *d*, the final consonant and the inflection are contracted into *t*; as, *Build, built, built; bend, bent, bent*. Some of these take the regular conjugation in the 2d Pers. Sing. Past; as, *cast, cast, castedst*.

Some of these verbs originally belonged to the first class ; as, *Cast, kest, kest*.

III. Verbs of mixed conjugation.

These receive inflection by changing the vowel sound of the present in the preterite and past participle, and by adding the regular inflection in *d* or *ed*, which is afterwards absorbed into the preceding syllable and sometimes contracted into *t* ; as, *Flee, fled, fled* ; *bereave, bereft, bereft* ; *feel, felt, felt* ; *dream, dreamt, dreamt*.

Many of these verbs are conjugated regularly also. In their irregular form they unite the characteristics of the two preceding classes.

To this class belong most of the auxiliary verbs ; as, *Have, had, had* ; *may, might* ; *can, could* ; *do, did, done*.

IV. Composite verbs.

These verbs derive their parts from different originals ; as, *Am, was, been* ; *go, went, gone*.

Part III.

THE DERIVATION OF WORDS.

302. Derivation is the third part of Etymology, and treats of the origin and primary signification of words.

OBS. 1.—In every highly developed language, and especially in languages which have borrowed largely from other tongues, the numerous words of the language may be reduced to a limited number of classes, each of which will include those words which are related to each other by a partial identity of origin, and by some correspondence of signification.

“ Thus the words *justice, judiciary, justify, justification, justly, adjust, readjust, unjust, injustice, unjustly*, are all kindred words, connected with their common parent, *just*. In like manner, *terrace, terraqueous, terrene, terrestrial, terrier, territory, inter, disinter, Mediterranean, subterranean*, etc., are all connected with their parent, *terra*, the earth.” (McCulloch, Engl. Gram., p. 84.)

OBS. 2.—Haldeman is of opinion that there are not more than 300 roots in any language, while the English language has upwards of 100,000 words. With twelve prefixes are formed 22,000 words, and with the single prefix *un* 5,600 words. With twelve suffixes are formed 11,600 words, and from the same number of radical elements, 3,050. (Engl. Affixes, pp. 13-16.)

303. Words are divided into two leading classes—Primitives and Derivatives.

304. Primitive words are those which are not derived from any simple word in the language ; as, *man, horse*.

302. Of what does Derivation treat ? 303. Into what two classes are words divided in respect to derivation ? 304. What are Primitive words ? Give examples of primitive words.

305. Derivatives are words formed from primitives ; as, *goodness, goodly*, from *good* ; *unjust, unjustly, adjust*, from *just*.

OBS.—“The primitive words of a language are always few in comparison with its derivatives.”

306. Derivative words are either Primary or Secondary.

307. Primary Derivatives are such as are formed by an internal change or modification of the word ; as, from *strike*, come *struck, strake, strook, streak, stroke* ; from *work*—*wrought, wright*.

308. Secondary Derivatives are such as are made by some addition to the primary word ; as from *strike* come *striking, stricken, striker*.

309. The additions employed in forming secondary derivatives are called affixes.

310. Affixes, when attached to the beginning of a word, are called **Prefixes** ; as, *un* in *unhand*, derived from *hand*.

311. Affixes, when attached to the end of a word, are called **Suffixes** ; as, *some* in *handsome*, derived from *hand*.

312. Secondary derivatives may be formed by the addition of both prefixes and suffixes ; as, *un-hand-some* from *hand*.

OBS.—Secondary derivatives may also be formed by the addition of more than one prefix, or of more than one suffix, or by the addition of more than one of both, or by one of either, and more than one of the other ; as from *stand* comes *mis-under-stand* and *mis-under-stand-ing* ; from *tangle* comes *dis-en-tangle* and *dis-en-tangle-ment* ; from *come* are formed *un-be-com-ing* and *un-be-com-ing-ly*.

305. What are Derivative words ? Give examples of derivative words. 306. How are derivative words divided ? 307. What are primary derivatives ? Mention some primary derivatives. 308. What are Secondary Derivatives ? Give examples of secondary derivatives ? 309. What are the additions employed in forming secondary derivatives called ? 310. What name is given to Affixes attached to the beginning of a word ? 311. What name is given to affixes attached to the end of a word ? 312. May more than one prefix or suffix be used in forming secondary derivatives ?

313. Words which are borrowed from other languages are to be regarded as primitives in the language by which they are adopted, even if they are derivative or compound words in the language from which they are taken.

Thus *incontrovertible* is a simple and primitive word in English, though it is both derivative and compound in Latin.

314. Derivative words may belong to both the primary and secondary classes; that is to say, they may be formed by both internal change and the addition of affixes.

Thus from *break* comes *broker*; from *see* comes *insight*.

315. Compound words may be regarded as forming a subdivision of derivatives.

Compound words are such as are formed by the union of two or more words having a distinct signification separately.

Derivatives are formed by changes or affixes having no independent signification in the language. Thus *ship-broker* is a compound word; but *broker* is a secondary derivative.

ENGLISH PRIMITIVES.

316. The English language derives its primitive words from various languages.

OBS.—The English language embraces words derived from German, Scandinavian, Celtic, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, Turkish, Hindoo, Malay, Chinese, and other tongues.

317. The chief part of the English language is derived from the Anglo-Saxon; and its most important and fundamental words have been received from the Anglo-Saxon speech.

313. How are words borrowed from other languages to be regarded? 314. May derivative words be both primary and secondary? Give examples of this. 315. How may compound words be regarded? What are compound words? How do they differ from derivatives? 316. Whence are English Primitives derived? 317. Whence is the chief part of the English language derived?

318. Words of Anglo-Saxon origin are termed Pure English; those of other origin are designated Mixed English.

Sleep, dream, hat, wall, house, are pure English words.

Mortal, derivation, generous, liberty, turban, cigar, hospital, wigwam, are mixed English words.

319. Words derived from foreign languages frequently undergo changes to adapt them to the English tongue.

Thus, from Lat. *sermo* comes *sermon*; from Lat. *humanus* comes *human*; from French *couvre-feu* comes *curfew*; from French *couvre-chef* comes *kerchief*.

ENGLISH PRIMARY DERIVATIVES.

320. Primary Derivatives are formed in English principally in four modes.

I. By changing the vowel, or vowel sound, of the Primitive; as, from *bind* come *bond, bound*; from *bite* comes *bit*, a piece *bitten*.

II. By changing the final consonant, or consonant sound of the primitive; as, from *stick—stitch*; from *dig—ditch*; from *breath—breathe*.

III. By changing both the vowels and the consonants, or their sounds; as, from *weave—woof*; from *dig—dike*; from *lose—loss*.

IV. By adding a letter at the beginning; as, from *melt—smelt*; from *whirl—twirl*.

321. Several primary derivatives in English undergo no change, and retain exactly the form of their primitives; as, from *praise* comes *to praise*; from *snow* comes

318. What are words of Anglo-Saxon origin termed? What are other words called? 319. Do foreign words retain their foreign forms in English? 320. How are Primary Derivatives in English formed? 321. Do all primary derivatives in English differ from their primitives?

to snow; from *ice* comes *to ice*; and from *to fall* comes *fall*.

322. Primary derivatives are nearly all pure English.

Only pure English primitives form primary derivatives by changing the vowels or the vowel sounds.

ENGLISH SECONDARY DERIVATIVES.

323. The **Affixes** employed in forming Secondary Derivatives in English are either Separable or Inseparable.

324. Separable affixes are those which are used as independent words; such as, *on*, *in*, *full*, *like*, etc., in *on-slaught*, *in-sight*, *wonder-ful*, *star-like*.

325. Inseparable affixes are those which are employed only in the formation of derivative words; as, *a* in *a-back*, *a-wake*; *be* in *be-fore*, *be-speak*, *be-tide*.

326. The affixes employed in the formation of English derivatives are of various origin.

Many are derived from the Anglo-Saxon; as, *un* in *un-fetter*; *hood* in *child-hood*. Several are from the old Norse and other Scandinavian tongues, but, having been adopted by the Anglo-Saxon, they are entitled to be considered pure English. *A* in *a-board*, *a-gog*, illustrates this class.

More are borrowed from the Latin, and from mixed English words; as, *al* in *al-lot*; *ment* in *judg-ment*.

Some are derived from the Greek; as, *ism* in *Protestant-ism*, *Pharisa-ism*.

327. Saxon or English affixes are usually connected with pure English Primitives; as, *un*, *some*, in *un-hand-some*; *with* in *with-draw*, *with-stand*.

322. What is the nature of nearly all primary derivatives in English? 323. What two kinds of Affixes are employed in forming English Secondary Derivatives? 324. What are Separable Affixes? 325. What are Inseparable Affixes? 326. What is the origin of the English affixes? 327. With what words are Saxon affixes used?

328. Latin affixes are for the most part joined with words of Latin descent; as, *in* in *in-cognizant*: but they are often used with English words; as, *able* in *un-speakable*.

329. Greek affixes should be attached only to words derived from the Greek; and Greek words should not receive affixes of any other origin than Greek.

THE PURE ENGLISH AFFIXES.

Prefixes and Suffixes.

330. The **Pure English Affixes** are few in number in comparison with those derived from Latin and Greek.

331. The **Pure English Prefixes** scarcely reach twenty in number.

They are, *a* in *a-bed*, *an* in *an-neal*, *be* in *be-siege*, *for* in *for-bid*, *fore* in *fore-tell*, *fro* in *fro-ward*, *gain* in *gain-say*, *n* in *n-ever*, *out* in *out-bid*, *un* in *un-loose*, *up* in *up-set*, *with* in *with-stand*, and a few others, which are doubtful, or rarely used, or entirely disused.

332. The **Pure English Suffixes** are much more numerous than the prefixes, and are not used indifferently in forming different parts of speech.

333. Nouns signifying persons are formed with the suffixes *ar*, *ard*, *art*, *er*, *ster*, *yer*, for the masculine; and *ess*, *ster*, and *stress*, for the feminine.

Examples: *Ar* in *begg-ar*, *ard* in *cow-ard*, *art* in *bragg-art*, *er* in *sing-er*, *ster* in *young-ster*, *yer* in *law-yer*—masculine; and *ess* in *godd-ess*, *ster* in *spin-ster*, *stress* in *seam-stress*. (fem.)

328. With what words are Latin affixes chiefly used? 329. To what words should Greek affixes be attached? 330. Are the Pure English Affixes numerous? 331. Are there many Pure English Prefixes? What are they? Give examples of them. 332. Are the English Suffixes more numerous than the prefixes? How do these differ in use? 333. What suffixes form nouns signifying persons? Give instances of each.

Some of these terminations are also used in forming nouns of other genders.

334. Abstract nouns, denoting quality, condition, habit, action, etc., are formed with the suffixes *dom*, *ery*, *head*, *hood*, *ing*, *ledge*, *lock*, *ness*, *red*, *ship*, *ter*, *t*, and *th*.

Examples: *Dom* in *Christen-dom*, *ery* in *monk-ery*, *head* in *God-head*, *hood* in *child-hood*, *ing* in *morning*, *ledge* in *knowledge*, *lock* in *wed-lock*, *ness* in *dark-ness*, *red* in *hat-red*, *ship* in *hard-ship*, *ter* in *raf-ter*, *t* in *weigh-t*, *th* in *heal-th*.

335. Other nouns are formed with the suffixes *d*, *en* or *n*, *er*, *le*, *m* or *om*, *ow*, *ric*, *ry*, *wick*, and *y*; as, *d* in *floo-d*, *en* in *maid-en*, *n* in *kil-n*, *er* in *work-er*, *le* in *hand-le*, *m* or *om* in *sea-m*, *blo-om*, *ow* in *mead-ow*, *ric* in *bishop-ric*, *ry* in *found-ry*, *wick* in *baili-wick*, *y* in *soldier-y*.

336. Diminutives are formed with the suffixes *el*, *et*, *key*, *kin*, *let*, *lin*, *ling*, *m*, and *ock*.

Examples: *El* in *kern-el*, *et* in *pock-et*, *key* in *mon-key*, *kin* in *fir-kin*, *let* in *ring-let*, *lin* in *gob-lin*, *ling* in *shave-ling*, *m* in *fil-m*, *ock* in *hill-ock*.

337. The pure English suffixes employed in the formation of verbs are *en*, *er*, *ish*, *le*, *ter*, and *y*.

Examples: *En* in *weak-en*, *er* in *ling-er*, *ish* in *burn-ish*, *le* in *crumb-le*, *ter* in *frit-ter*, *y* in *sull-y*.

338. Adjectives are formed with the suffixes *ed*, *en*, *erly*, *ern*, *fold*, *ful*, *ish*, *less*, *like*, *ly*, *some*, *th*, *ty*, *ward*, and *y*.

As *ed* in *wretch-ed*, *en* in *wax-en*, *erly* in *east-erly*, *ern* in *west-ern*, *fold* in *mani-fold*, *ful* in *wonder-ful*, *ish* in *fool-ish*,

334. How are Abstract Nouns formed? Supply examples in each case. 335. How are other nouns formed? Illustrate these formations by examples. 336. With what suffixes are Diminutives formed? Give instances. 337. What suffixes are employed in forming verbs? Furnish instances of the use of each. 338. What suffixes are used to form adjectives? Present examples.

less in *life-less*, *like* in *war-like*, *ly* in *king-ly*, *some* in *whole-some*, *th* in *four-th*, *ty* in *twen-ty*, *ward* in *awk-ward*, *y* in *sorr-y*, or *ey* after *y*, as in *clay-ey*.

339. Adverbs are formed with the suffixes *ce*, *ly*, *n*, *re*, *s*, *st*, *ther*, *ward* or *wards*, and *wise*.

Examples: *Ce* in *on-ce*, *ly* in *tru-ly*, *n* in *the-n*, *re* in *the-re*, *s* in *beside-s*, *st* in *whil-st*, *ther* in *hi-ther*, *ward* or *wards* as in *back-ward*, *back-wards*, *wise* in *like-wise*.

340. Suffixes are seldom employed in forming pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

FOREIGN AFFIXES.

Prefixes and Suffixes.

341. The affixes of foreign origin employed in forming English words are very numerous, especially those taken from the Latin.

342. Latin Affixes are attached to pure English and to mixed English words, and also occur in compound words borrowed from the Latin; as, *in-sight*, *non-sense*, *se-cure*.

The principal Latin affixes found in English are the following.

I. Prefixes: *A*, *ab*, *abs*; *ad*, *a*, *ac*, *af*, *ag*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *ar*, *as*, *at*; *amb*, *an*; *ante*, *anti*; *circum*, *circu*; *con*, *co*, *cog*, *col*, *cor*; *contra*; *de*; *dis*, *di*; *e*, *ex*, *ec*, *ef*; *in*, *im*; *in*, *il*, *im*, *ir*; *inter*, *intel*; *intro*; *ne*; *non*; *ob*, *o*, *oc*, *of*, *op*; *per*, *pel*; *post*; *præ*, *pre*; *præter*, *preter*; *re*, *red*; *retro*; *se*; *sine*; *sub*, *su*, *suc*, *suf*, *sug*, *sup*, *sus*; *subter*; *super*; *supra*; *trans*, *tra*; *ultra*.

339. What are the English suffixes used to form adverbs? Give examples in each formation. 340. Are suffixes employed to form the other parts of speech? 341. What affixes are very numerous in English? What class is the most numerous? 342. With what words are Latin affixes joined?

II. Suffixes:

In nouns denoting persons: *sor* in *spon-sor*, *tor* in *rec-tor*, *trix* in *execu-trix*.

In abstract nouns, and in nouns denoting things: *acy* in *fall-acy*; *ance* or *ence* in *main-ten-ance*, *emin-ence*; *ancy* or *ency* in *ascend-ancy*, *emin-ency*; *ice* in *just-ice*; *ity* or *ty* in *dign-ity*, *plen-ty*; *l* or *il* in *flai-l*, *ax-il*; *ion*, *sion*, or *tion* in *reg-ion*, *occa-sion*, *ac-tion*; *ment* in *monu-ment*; *mony* in *acri-mony*; *or* in *trem-or*; *sure* or *ture* in *era-sure*, *pic-ture*; *tude* in *grati-tude*.

In diminutive nouns; *aster* in *poet-aster*; *cule* in *ridi-cule*; *cle* in *radi-cle*; *ule* in *glob-ule*.

In adjectives: *aceous* in *crust-aceous*; *al* in *reg-al*; *an* or *ian* in *sylv-an*, *Christ-ian*; *ane*, *ene*, or *ine* in *mund-ane*, *terr-ene*, *mar-ine*; *ant* or *ent* in *inf-ant*, *torr-ent*; *ar* or *ary* in *sol-ar*, *exempl-ary*; *ferous* in *somni-ferous*; *fic* in *terri-fic*; *ible* or *able* in *ed-ible*, *eat-able*; *ic* or *ical* in *com-ic*, *com-ical*; *il* or *ile* in *civ-il*, *doc-ile*; *ose* or *ous* in *verb-ose*, *odi-ous*; *olent* or *ulent* in *vi-olent*, *pulver-ulent*; *sory* or *tory* in *delu-sory*, *migra-tory*; *ple* in *sim-ple*.

In verbs: *ate* in *vac-ate*; *fy* in *magni-fy*; *ite* in *exped-ite*.

NOTE.—These suffixes are not given according to their etymological character in the Latin language, but according to their use in the English; thus, *ion*, *sion*, and *tion* are not three forms of one termination, but the single termination *ion*, since the *s* and *t* belong in the Latin to the radical or primitive word.

343. Greek Affixes are much fewer than those which come from the Latin.

They are also of more recent introduction, having been received into the English by the adoption of Greek compound words, or by later imitations of such compounds in the formation of new words.

344. Greek Prefixes rarely occur except in Greek words borrowed in their compound forms, or in technical and other terms formed upon such models.

The Greek prefixes which most commonly appear in English words are these: *a* or *an*, not, in *a-pathy*; *an-*

343. Are Greek affixes as frequent as Latin? 344. Where are Greek prefixes chiefly found?

archy ; *amphi*, about, in *amphi-theatre* ; *ana*, *an*, up, in *anatomy* ; *anti*, *ant*, against, in *anti-pathy*, *Ant-arctic* ; *apo*, *ap*, from, in *apo-cope*, *ap-helion* ; *cata*, *cat*, down, in *cata-strophe*, *cat-optics* ; *dia*, *di*, through, in *dia-meter*, *di-orama* ; *en*, *em*, in, in *en-caustics*, *em-phasis* ; *epi*, *ep*, upon, in *epi-taph*, *ep-hemeral* ; *ex*, *ec*, out of, in *ex-odus*, *ec-stasy* ; *hyper*, over, in *hyper-critical* ; *hypo*, *hyp*, under, in *hypo-thenuse*, *hyp-hen* ; *meta*, *met*, beside, in *meta-phor*, *met-onymy* ; *para*, *par*, near to, in *para-dox*, *par-ody* ; *peri*, around, in *peri-phrasis* ; *syn*, *sy*, *syl*, *sym*, together, in *syn-opsis*, *sy-stem*, *syl-logism*, *sym-bol*.

345. The **Greek Suffixes** are fewer than the Greek Prefixes, but they are more frequently employed in forming new English words.

The Greek suffixes employed in English are the following :

In Nouns indicating persons, *ist* in *soph-ist* ; *ite* in *Ishmael-ite* ; *ine* in *hero-ine*.

In Abstract Nouns, and in nouns denoting things : *ad* or *id* in *Ili-ad*, *Æne-id* ; *ic* or *ics* in *rhetor-ic*, *gymnast-ics* ; *ism* or *sm* in *magnet-ism*, *spa-sm* ; *ma* in *panora-ma* ; *sis* in *cri-sis* ; *y* in *monarch-y*.

In Diminutives, *isk* in *aster-isk*.

In Verbs, *ize* or *ise* in *critic-ize*, *catech-ise*.

NOTE.—Adjectives formed with Greek suffixes have usually been borrowed by the English through the Latin, and retain the Latin forms.

OBS. 1.—It is unnecessary to extend this brief summary of English derivation by adding any observations on the affixes introduced from the French or other foreign languages not already noticed.

OBS. 2.—In compiling this brief abstract of the principles of English derivation, assistance has been received from Horne Tooke, Latham, Smart, Fowler, Allen and Cornwall, McCulloch, Wallis, Richardson, Oswald, Barnes, Angus, Bain, Haldeman, Max Müller, Worcester, and Webster.

345. How do Greek suffixes compare with Greek prefixes ?



PART III.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX IN GENERAL.

346. Syntax treats of the correct employment and arrangement of words in sentences.

OBS.—Syntax is concerned with the relations of words to each other in a sentence, and with the relations of parts of sentences to each other and to the whole sentence, and of sentences to each other.

347. Syntax is divided into two parts.

The first part of syntax treats of the relations of words to each other; or of the construction and arrangement of words.

The second part of syntax treats of the relations of clauses to each other and to the sentence in which they stand, and of sentences to each other; or of the structure of sentences.

348. A Sentence is a combination of words, or a single word, conveying a complete sense; as, *Dogs howl; the bees make honey; come.*

349. When a sentence consists of two or more parts, each part is called a Member.

In the sentence, *It was well contrived, and it was admirably executed*, the two distinct parts, *it was well contrived*, and *it was admirably executed*, are called the members of the sentence.

346. What does Syntax treat of? 347. Into what parts is syntax divided? What does each of these parts treat of? 348. What is a Sentence? Form different sentences. 349. What are the parts of a sentence called, when the sentence consists of two or more parts?

350. When the members of a sentence are so related to each other that one of them is dependent upon the other, and modifies it, they are termed **Clauses**.

In the sentence, *Sheep run, if you frighten them; sheep run* forms one clause, and *if you frighten them* forms another clause.

351. A **Phrase** is a combination of words grammatically connected together, but not forming a complete sense by themselves.

The speaker came up to public expectation. *Came up to public expectation* is a phrase. The words do not make a complete sense when they stand alone.

352. A **Proposition** is a sentence containing a single statement (*predication*), either affirmative or negative; as, *It rains; it does not rain*.

353. Sentences, in respect to their meaning, or purport, may be divided into five classes—Declarative, Imperative, Conditional, Interrogative, and Exclamatory.

354. A **Declarative Sentence** is one that declares or asserts something; as, *The day is warm; the sun warms the soil*.

Sentences are either affirmative or negative.

An affirmative sentence affirms something to be; as, *The sun is hot to-day*.

A negative sentence denies something, or affirms something not to be; as, *The sun is not hot to-day*.

Obs.—These two kinds of sentences are the same in grammatical form and construction, though directly opposed in signification. The addition of the negative adverb *not* converts an affirmative into a negative sentence.

350. What are the members of a sentence termed, when they are dependent on each other? 351. What is a Phrase? 352. What is a Proposition? 353. How are sentences divided with respect to their meaning? 354. What is a Declarative Sentence? Form declarative sentences. What are the two kinds of declarative sentences; and the nature of each?

355. An Imperative Sentence is one which commands, requests, entreats, etc.

It is characterized by the use of a verb in the imperative mood; as, *Come here to me; bring me pen, ink, and paper.*

356. A Conditional Sentence is one in which a condition is expressed; as, *You would have acted differently, if you had stopped to reflect: Had you reflected, you would have acted differently.*

357. An Interrogative Sentence is one employed in asking questions; as, *Is the sun warm? Is not the sun warm?*

OBS. 1.—A question is sometimes asked without employing the interrogative form of the verb, by a peculiar emphasis or intonation; as, *What! I do it?*

OBS. 2.—Interrogations may be either direct or indirect. They are direct, when a question is plainly asked; as, *Did you do it?* They are indirect, when a question is only implied; as, *I know not whether you did it.*

358. An Exclamatory Sentence is one which expresses a feeling or opinion in regard to something stated, or to be stated; as, *How wonderful is man! What a surprise it is!*

OBS.—Exclamatory sentences are disconnected in construction from the discourse in which they occur, and may be regarded as interjectional phrases.

359. The Subject and the Predicate of a sentence may be regarded as either Grammatical or Logical.

This distinction means that reference may be made either to the connection and construction of the words, or to the connection and nature of the thoughts.

360. The Grammatical Subject is a noun, or an infinitive, or some other word or phrase used as a

355. What is an Imperative Sentence? Give examples. 356. What is a Conditional Sentence? Frame such sentences. 357. What is an Interrogative Sentence? Illustrate such sentences by examples. 358. What is an Exclamatory Sentence? Give instances of this kind of sentence. 359. In what two ways may the Subject and the Predicate of a sentence be regarded? 360. How is the Grammatical Subject formed?

noun, and forming the nominative to the verb; as, *His* ANGER *was kindled against Israel*. To SUCCEED *requires industry*. THAT HE SHOULD HAVE SUCCEEDED *is surprising*.

361. The **Logical Subject** includes the noun or other nominative to the verb, with all the words connected with it to restrict, modify, or define its acceptance; as,

“THE SOLDIERS OF THE ARMY WHICH AMAZIAH SENT BACK, THAT THEY SHOULD NOT GO WITH HIM TO BATTLE, fell upon the cities of Judah.”

362. The **Grammatical Predicate** is the finite verb, in the active or passive voice, in any of the modes of conjugation; as, *Amaziah* STRENGTHENED *himself, their anger* WAS KINDLED; *night* IS APPROACHING.

363. The **Logical Predicate** includes the finite verb, with the object depending on it, and with all other words or phrases completing or modifying the assertion made by the verb; as,

“*He* HIRED A HUNDRED THOUSAND MIGHTY MEN OF VALOR OUT OF ISRAEL FOR A HUNDRED TALENTS OF SILVER.”

364. The subject and the finite verb constitute the essential and characteristic parts of a sentence. The object, when there is one, is dependent upon the verb. With these three parts the whole frame-work of the sentence is constructed.

All the other words and parts of the sentence are dependent either upon the sentence so formed, or upon one or other of these parts.

Obs.—In examining the construction of a sentence, accordingly, the first thing to be done is to discover the subject, whether noun,

361. What does the Logical Subject include? 362. What constitutes the Grammatical Predicate? 363. What is embraced by the Logical Predicate? 364. What are the essential parts of a sentence? On what are all the other words or parts of a sentence dependent?

or other word or phrase used as a noun ; then the finite verb, or word of predication ; then the object, if there be one. The next step is to refer the other words or parts of the sentence to one or other of these primary constituents of the sentence, or to the whole sentence already formed.

365. The subject, the predicate, and the object may be all modified, that is, the meaning of each may be restricted, extended, limited, or otherwise affected, by conjoining other words with them.

The sun ripens the fruits. By modifying the subject, the sentence may be changed into, *the unclouded sun ripens the fruits.*

By modifying the grammatical predicate, the sentence may become, *the unclouded sun rapidly ripens the fruits.*

By modifying the object, the sentence may be further altered into, *the unclouded sun rapidly ripens the grateful fruits.*

Further modifications, producing further alterations of signification, may be added. *The unclouded and burning sun rapidly and surely ripens the grateful fruits of autumn, during the earlier months of the declining year, so that they afford refreshing pleasures to the human family.*

But all the additions which have been received by this sentence are dependent upon the simple sentence composed of three parts—*the sun ripens the fruits.*

366. Those words and phrases which are employed to modify the meaning of the subject, the predicate, and the object, in the principal sentence, or in a subordinate clause, are termed Adjuncts.

367. The subject, the predicate, and the object may each have its own adjunct.

368. Parsing states the parts of speech to which the words of a sentence belong, the simple forms of the

365. May the subject, predicate, and object be modified ? 366. What name is given to the words and phrases which modify the leading parts of a sentence ? 367. What parts of a sentence may receive Adjuncts ? 368. What is Parsing ?

words which are inflected, the character of their particular inflections, their connection with other words in the sentence, and the rules which regulate such connection.

OBS.—The term Parsing is very vaguely used. It is often employed to indicate some one of these functions, and sometimes to indicate additional procedures. Parsing is properly confined to the explanation of the use of words in the construction of a sentence, and to the changes which they require to adapt them to this use.

369. The statement of the relations of the members, clauses, and phrases in a sentence to each other, of their dependences, and of the conditions and effects of their connection with each other, is termed the Analysis of Sentences.

OBS.—The analysis of sentences is not a branch of parsing, but a distinct process, which belongs to the Theory of Composition and to Rhetoric, rather than to Grammar. Parsing regards exclusively the grammatical relations and character of words; Analysis their logical and rhetorical significance.

370. Parsing is concerned with the First Part of Syntax, or the construction of words; Analysis, with the Second Part of Syntax, or the structure of sentences.

Part I.

CONSTRUCTION, OR THE SYNTAX OF WORDS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT, OR CONCORD.

371. RULE I.—A Noun or Pronoun used as the subject of a sentence is in the Nominative Case; as, *He and she are sick; London is an immense city.*

369. What is the Analysis of Sentences? 370. What parts of syntax do parsing and analysis respectively contemplate? 371. Give the First Rule of Syntax—in regard to the nominative of a sentence. How are subjects expressed otherwise than by nouns or pronouns? How are they construed?

A verb in the infinitive mood, a phrase, or a clause may form the subject of a sentence, and is construed as a noun in the nominative case.

TO LEARN *requires industry*. HIS BEING FROM HOME AT THE TIME OF MY ARRIVAL *occasioned much delay*. THAT WARM CLIMATES SHOULD ACCELERATE MATURITY AND DECAY *is very credible*.

Obs.—Whatever expression or sign names that which is spoken of, constitutes the subject of the sentence, and may be treated as a noun in the nominative case.

Z *is the last letter of the alphabet*. AN *is sometimes an article and sometimes a prefix*. LOVETH *is the third person singular of a verb*. § *is a mark used to denote a section*.

372. RULE II.—A verb must agree with its subject or nominative in number and person; as, *The dog barks, birds fly, I am alone*.

When the subject is singular, or denotes only a single thing, the verb is put in the singular number; as, *The vessel has sailed*.

When the subject is plural, or denotes more than one thing, the verb is put in the plural; as, *Trumpets sound*.

Verbs are never used in the first or second persons except with pronouns of those persons, expressed or understood; as, *I, Julius Caesar, am writing against Cato; Thou, David, art the man; Come, John*.

Pronouns of the third person, nouns in general, and other subjects require the verb to be in the third person, and are considered to be of the third person themselves; as, *Statesmanship demands knowledge*.

Relative pronouns are of the same person with the words to which they refer; as, *I, who am the writer, know this. Thou, Lord, who knowest the heart, knowest mine innocence. The Parliament, which was in session, instantly adjourned*.

373. RULE III.—Collective Nouns require a singular verb when they denote the collection as a whole; but a plural verb when they denote the individuals of which

372. Give the Second Rule—for the agreement of the verb with its nominative. Explain the application of this rule in the different numbers and persons.
373. Give the Third Rule—about the agreement of Collective Nouns with the verb.

the collection is composed; as, *The army is routed and disorganized; The clergy are debating the matter in convocation.*

Obs. 1.—The verb should be put in the singular or the plural according as the idea of unity or of plurality predominates.

Obs. 2.—A plural verb is used with a singular noun employed idiomatically to denote a plurality of things; as, *Ninety sail were engaged in the battle; A hundred head of cattle were in the pasture.*

Obs. 3.—A singular verb is used with a plural noun when the conception implied is single; as, *The news was very unwelcome; Much pains was taken.*

Obs. 4.—The singular or the plural form may be employed, according to the sense, in the phrase *as follows*—*His arguments were as follow, or as follows.* The singular verb is always found in the phrase, *as appears.*

374. RULE IV.—Two or more nominatives in the singular, connected together by the conjunction *and*, require a plural verb, if they express more than one thing; as, *England, Scotland, and Wales form the Island of Great Britain.*

But, if the nominatives form a single though compound conception, the verb is put in the singular; as, *Bread and butter is very good diet.*

Obs. 1.—The verb is still put in the plural if the conjunction *and* is suppressed; as, *Beauty, wealth, learning, rank, talent, virtue were united in him.*

Obs. 2.—When a singular nominative is enlarged by an Adjunct consisting of the preposition *with* and a dependent noun or pronoun, the verb is usually put in the singular, but may be put in the plural; as, *Industry, with economy, secures success. The general, with his staff, are in the field.* Both constructions are sustained by good authority.

In either case the construction is determined by the sense: if the thought is single, the verb must be in the singular; if there is plurality in the thought, the verb should be in the plural.

Obs. 3.—A verb coming between two nominatives, either of which may be the subject, may agree with either of them; as, *The wages of sin is death.* But the examples which seem to fall under this rule may be better explained otherwise.

375. RULE V.—Singular nominatives connected together by the conjunctions *or*, *nor*, etc., require the verb to be in the singular; as, *Ignorance or negligence has caused this mistake.*

374. Give the Fourth Rule—relating to nominatives connected by *and*. When do such nominatives take a singular verb? 375. What is the Fifth Rule—regarding nominatives connected by *or*, *nor*, etc.?

When nominatives of different numbers are connected by *or, nor, etc.*, the verb should be in the plural; as, *Neither the captain nor the soldiers have arrived.*

OBS.—The plural noun should be placed next the verb when practicable.

376. RULE VI.—Nouns and pronouns used to explain other nouns or pronouns, denoting the same persons or things, are put by apposition in the same case; as, *Cicero, the orator, declaimed against Verres; William, the Conqueror, landed at Hastings.*

OBS.—When nouns in apposition are in the Possessive Case, the sign of the possessive is used with one of them only, and is understood with the rest. It is used with either the first or the last of the words in apposition; as, *This treatise is Aristotle's, the sage, and the philosopher;* or, *This treatise is Aristotle, the sage's.*

To secure clearness of expression, it is often necessary to restrict the possessive sign to the first noun; as, *The treatise is Aristotle's, the greatest philosopher of antiquity.*

When the language is emphatic or solemn the possessive sign is sometimes attached to all the nouns in apposition; as, *This great discovery is Aristotle's, the sage's, the philosopher's, the logician's, the critic's.*

The effect of such repetition of the possessive sign is to ascribe the discovery to Aristotle in each of these characters.

377. RULE VII.—Pronouns agree with the nouns for which they stand, or to which they refer, in gender, number, and person; as, *The officer has returned; he is praised for his conduct: I have lost my knife; have you got it, or have you got your own?*

OBS. 1.—But the neuter pronoun *it* is frequently employed to represent a clause, or a noun or pronoun of any gender, number, and person; as, *It is I; it was she; it was they, who did it. It is the duty of the Christian to love his enemies.*

In the last sentence, *it* represents the clause, *to love his enemies.*

OBS. 2.—The pronoun and the noun represented by it should not be used as nominatives to the same verb, unless when a strong emphasis is required. It is incorrect to say, *The house it is torn down;* but there is peculiar vigor and elegance in the expression, *The Lord, He is God.*

378. RULE VIII.—The Demonstrative Pronouns *this* and *that* agree in number with the nouns with which

376 Repeat the Sixth Rule—for nouns and pronouns in apposition. 377. State the Seventh Rule—about the agreement of nouns and pronouns. 378. What is the Eighth Rule—in respect to Demonstrative Pronouns?

they are joined, or to which they refer; as, *These are my books, those are yours: These books are mine, those books are yours.*

379. RULE IX.—The Relative Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person; as, *The man, who carried your message, brought back the cloak; I, who am injured, will forgive.*

OBS. 1.—The Relative *who* is used only in regard to persons, but *that* is used for both persons and things.

OBS. 2.—When the antecedent is a collective noun specially implying a single idea, though signifying persons, *which* is used in preference to *who*; as, *The extreme party, which possessed great influence, was guilty of many excesses.*

OBS. 3.—The relative should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent, to prevent uncertainty of reference; as, *Sailors who had just been paid off, were frequently plundered by highwaymen;* instead of, *Sailors were frequently plundered by highwaymen, who had just been paid off.*

380. RULE X.—When a question is asked by means of an interrogative pronoun, the noun or pronoun in the answer must be in the same case as the interrogative; as, *Whose house is that? It is the governor's.*

OBS.—The interrogative *who* is used only for persons; but *which* for both persons and things.

381. RULE XI.—The Articles relate to the nouns which they limit; as, *A bee, an ant, the queen, the soldiers; a great work, the best spirit; a university; an umbrella.*

OBS. 1.—If two or more nouns or adjectives are applied to one person or thing, the article is used with the first only; as, *Hooker was a good and learned man;* but if they refer to different persons or things, the article should be repeated with each; as, *The Tory Pitt, and the Whig Fox.*

OBS. 2.—The meaning of a sentence may be changed by the introduction or by the omission of the indefinite article; as, *The general had a few soldiers with him; The general had few soldiers with him.*

OBS. 3.—The indefinite article is used before nouns in the plural

379. Give the Ninth Rule—how do Relative Pronouns agree with their antecedents? 380. State the Tenth Rule—in regard to the case which replies to a question. 381. Mention the Eleventh Rule—in regard to the employment of the articles.

succeeded by the adjectives *few*, *great many*, *hundred*, *thousand*, etc.; as, *A great many strangers were in town.*

The explanation of this usage is, that the words *few*, *many*, *hundred*, etc., are used as Collective Nouns in the singular.

OBS. 4.—The indefinite article is used after *such*, *many*, *what*, and after all adjectives with a singular noun preceded by *too*, *so*, *as*, *how*. The Definite Article is used after *all*; as, *Such a man as he was*; *Many a man has done the same thing*; *He gave me all the money he had*; *It was too hazardous a thing to attempt.*

OBS. 5.—The indefinite article is used before a Comparative followed by *than*; the definite article before a comparative followed by *of*; as, *He is a wiser man than his brother*; *He is the wiser of the two.*

The definite article is also used before the comparative, when the comparison is not between different persons or things, but between different conditions of the same person or thing; as, *He was the wiser for his misfortunes*; *The greater the evil, the more prompt should be the remedy.*

OBS. 5.—In comparisons the omission of the indefinite article before the second noun restricts both nouns to the same subject; the introduction of the article makes a comparison between two subjects; as, *William is a better writer than reader*, which means that William writes better than he reads: but, *William is a better writer than a reader*, would mean that William writes better than a reader writes.

382. RULE XII.—Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles limit or qualify nouns or pronouns; as, *A gentle disposition is a great attraction*; *The discussion was earnest*; *Seizing his hat, he rushed from the house.*

OBS. 1.—The adjective may express either an attribute of a noun, as, *He is a good man*; or may form part of the predicate and ascribe a quality to the noun; as, *The man is good.*

OBS. 2.—When the adjective forms part of the predicate, it sometimes relates to a noun implied in the verb, and not to any noun separately expressed or understood; as, *The new-mown hay smells sweet*. This does not mean simply that the hay is sweet, but that it has a sweet smell, the noun *smell* being implied in the verb *smells*. The sentence differs slightly in signification from *The new-mown hay smells sweetly*.

383. RULE XIII.—A noun or pronoun joined with a participle, and not dependent upon any other word in the sentence, is put in the nominative case, which is called the Nominative Absolute; as, *The storm being violent, the admiral's ship was separated from the fleet.*

OBS.—The nominative was not originally the absolute case in English.—*Latham.*

384. RULE XIV.—A noun or pronoun in the nomina-

382. Give the Twelfth Rule—for the relation of adjectives to nouns. 383. Give the Thirteenth Rule—relative to the Case Absolute. 384. What is the Fourteenth Rule—on the connection of the nominative with a finite verb?

tive case must always be connected with a finite verb, unless it be a nominative absolute, or be used as a term of address ; as, *O ye hypocrites, ye can discern the face of the sky !*

Obs.—*Ye hypocrites* is used without a finite verb, and these words are usually construed as nominatives of address. In reality, they are vocative cases, or cases of calling, although identical in form with the nominative.

Exercises.

Correct the following expressions, and give the rules for the correct constructions.

We was in the country yesterday. You was mistaken. Before thou begins, consider whether thou can perform. Most animals, except man, keeps to one kind of food. Herbs is the food of one species, and flesh are the food of another. No thanks is due for compulsory favors. The army are in camp, but a regiment are on outpost duty. The mob is fighting among themselves. The news are very unfavorable. To reproach a person for past offences are very ungracious. Virtue and vice has different effects. Brandy and water are often prescribed for health. To scorn or to hate him are equally unwise. Neither the master nor the servant were to be found. No man's punishment should be greater than their crime. These are the bay horses of the man whom he was looking for. Whose image and superscription are this? Cæsar. The carpenter is here of which I spoke. Their long travelling in warm climates were injurious to their health.

SECTION II.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF DEPENDENT WORDS (OR GOVERNMENT).

385. RULE XV.—Transitive verbs in the active voice

385. State the Fifteenth Rule—about the transitive verb and its object.

require a noun or pronoun after them in the objective case, to complete the predicate; as, *She told me that you struck her.*

OBS. 1.—A transitive verb forms an incomplete predication by itself, and, in order to complete the predication, requires an object after it, which may be a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive, or a clause. In *Cain killed*, the proposition is incomplete, and is not completed till it is stated whom or what he killed. The object killed, the objective case of the noun signifying what was killed, is required to complete the statement. The sentence is completed when it is said *Cain killed Abel.*

OBS. 2.—Many verbs are used both transitively and intransitively; as, *He lamented his friends: he lamented for his friends.*

OBS. 3.—An intransitive verb becomes transitive, when it is used in a causative sense, that is, to signify that the act denoted by the verb is made to be performed by something; as, *He walked his horse round the race-course.*

The verb, in this use, represents a function which is in some verbs discharged by an internal change of the word, or by primary derivation; as, *A man falls down a precipice*, but *he fells an ox or an oak.*

386. RULE XVI.—Intransitive verbs may take after them a noun in the objective case to signify the same thing substantively which is included in the signification of the verb; as, *I dreamt a dream which was not all a dream.*

OBS. 1.—The noun in the objective case need not be the exact equivalent, or the substantive expression, of the action denoted by the verb, but any noun which signifies what is virtually implied in the verb; as, *He has run his career.*

OBS. 2.—Intransitive verbs are often rendered transitive by the addition of a preposition; as, *They laughed him to scorn.* Here the preposition, besides taking a noun in the objective case after it, has the effect also of rendering the verb transitive.

The more common form of this usage is presented by such expressions as, *Fortune smiled on his efforts.*

The ordinary mode of explaining these constructions is to consider them as examples of an objective case dependent upon a preposition. But, as the verb with the preposition admits a passive voice, which, without the preposition, it does not, it is better in most cases to regard the preposition as entering into composition with the verb which it follows. (See § 142.)

387. RULE XVII.—A verb in the infinitive mood, a participle used as a noun, a phrase, or a clause may take the place of a noun as the object of a transitive

386. Give the Sixteenth Rule—for Intransitive Verbs with an object. 387. Give the Seventeenth Rule—for the expression of an object otherwise than by a noun.

verb ; as, *The boys love to play, the girls love to study ; The fear of the Lord shows the beginning of wisdom ; The Bible teaches that God is love.*

OBS.—An infinitive denoting purpose is used to extend the predicate after some verbs, both transitive and intransitive ; as, *He came to see me ; He reads to acquire knowledge.*

In this employment, the infinitive does not take the place of a noun in the objective case, but represents the purpose of an action. He came for the purpose of seeing me. He reads for the purpose of acquiring knowledge.

In other languages a preposition is usually employed to express this modification of the predicate. In vulgar and provincial English the preposition *for* is still so employed. It was habitually used in the earlier stages of the language. *What went ye out for to see ?*

388. RULE XVIII.—Verbs which signify *asking, giving, telling, teaching, paying, etc.*, take two objective cases after them, one for the direct, and one for the indirect or remote object ; as, *Priscian taught him grammar ; His father gave Henry a watch.*

OBS. 1 --The verbs which are formed with this construction are *ask, bring, buy, do, draw, deny, find, furnish, get, give, hand, leave, lend, make, offer, order, pass, pay, play, pour, present, promise, provide, refuse, sell, send, sing, show, teach, tell, throw, write.*

But some other verbs admit the like construction ; as, *Saddle me a horse.*

OBS. 2.—The noun or pronoun representing the indirect object should be placed next to the verb, and before the direct object.

OBS. 3.—The verbs *appoint, call, consider, constitute, create, esteem, make, name, reckon, regard, render, style, think*, and some others, take after them a direct object, of which they predicate something by a noun which is also in the objective case ; as, *They made him Captain ; The King appointed Lord Eldon Chancellor ; His enemies thought him either a knave or a fool.*

This construction is not an instance of apposition, but of ellipsis or suppression, the infinitive *to be* or a preposition being omitted.

OBS. 4.—The verb *repent* is sometimes followed by an objective case ; as, *They repented them of the evil.*

This expression has been condemned, but unnecessarily. *To repent one's self* is one of the few remnants of the reflexive verb in English.

389. RULE XIX.—Verbs, which in the active voice take two objective cases after them, retain an objective case for the direct object in the passive, and convert the indirect object of the active into the nominative of

388. What is the Eighteenth Rule—in regard to verbs followed by two objective cases ? 389. Repeat the Nineteenth Rule—relating to the passive of verbs which take two objectives.

the passive verb; as, *I asked him a question—he was asked a question by me; Priscian taught him grammar—he was taught grammar by Priscian.*

OBS. 1.—The forms, *a question was asked him, grammar was taught him*, if not positively ungrammatical, as they are often declared to be, are certainly colloquial, and ought to be avoided in written compositions.

But with verbs of *giving* both forms are used; though *a knife was given him* is more common and more authorized than *he was given a knife*.

OBS. 2.—Some verbs, which take a secondary objective in the active voice, do not admit an objective case in the passive. We say, *Saddle me a horse*, but we cannot say, *I was saddled a horse*, nor *a horse was saddled me*.

390. RULE XX.—The verbs *to be, to become*, and most intransitive and passive verbs, take the same case after them as before them; as, *Nathan said unto David, Thou art the man; The French allowed Louis Napoleon to become their Emperor.*

OBS. 1.—In these constructions, the noun or pronoun after the verb designates the same thing as the noun or pronoun before the verb, and the words put in the same case are in some sort of apposition to each other.

OBS. 2.—In such a sentence as, *he was chosen Emperor*, the noun *Emperor* is usually represented to be the nominative after the passive verb, corresponding in case with the subject of the verb; but it would seem better to regard it as an objective case, in accordance with the principles exhibited in §§ 388, 389.

As it is only a noun which can occupy this position, the form of expression is not affected by any difference of interpretation in regard to the case of the noun.

OBS. 3.—The following verbs are those which take the same case after them as before them: *To appear, be, become, come, commence, continue, die, expire, go, grow, last, lie, live, reign, remain, return, seem, sit, stand, turn, wander*; as, *He turned patriot; The Parthenon stands a ruin; Sidney lived the Shepherd's friend.*

These verbs are called *Apposition Verbs*, in consequence of their employment with this construction.

Exercises.

Correct the following expressions, and give the rules for the correct forms. Complete the imperfect sentences.

My uncle took my cousin and I to the picture gallery.
He and they we know. We, seeking flowers in the wood

390. State the Twentieth Rule—in regard to intransitive and passive verbs.

——. They, returning home —— the horse. The children got into mischief, them being absent. Her having finished her lessons, all were allowed to play. The little boys told she about their sports. His friend offered him ——. It was not us who did it. We thought it to be she, but became convinced that it was not her. It was him who was in the wrong, and it was me who tried to restrain him.

391. RULE XXI.—A noun or a pronoun joined to another noun, to signify some attribute or quality, or to denote possession, is put in the possessive case; as, *The king's army, the soldier's sword, the boy whose mother is dead.*

OBS. 1.—The noun in the possessive case precedes the noun which it limits, and on which it depends.

OBS. 2.—The possessive noun may often be expressed by the noun in the objective after the preposition *of*: as, *The army of the king; The sword of the soldier.*

OBS. 3.—When two or more nouns in the possessive case are connected together, and relate to one noun, the sign of the possessive is added to the last only, if the noun to which they relate appertains to them jointly or together; as, *Lucian and Lucy's wedding takes place to-morrow; You may find the book at John Smith the bookseller's shop.*

But, if the noun to which they relate appertains to them severally or separately, the possessive sign must be used with each of them; as, *The King's and the Parliament's forces encountered each other at Naseby.*

392. RULE XXII.—The present participle may be used as a verbal noun after the possessive case, or may be qualified by the possessive pronouns; as, *There is no instance of a man's accomplishing such a feat; In consequence of his being an officer, he was only cashiered for the offence.*

OBS. 1.—This construction has been condemned by Bishop Lowth, Gould Brown, Gibbs, etc. It is sustained by Campbell, Grant, James, Mulligan, and many others. It is admitted by all to be current, and is frequent in the best authors.

Constructions of this character are among the most anomalous and obscure in the English language. They have arisen from the identification of the verbal noun with the participle in *-ing*. (§ 92, obs. 3.)

391. Repeat the Twenty-first Rule—on the use of the possessive case. 392. Give the Twenty-second Rule—relating to the use of possessives with the participle.

The participle assumes a substantive character and construction, while retaining the capacity which belongs to verbs of taking nouns, and other adjuncts, after them. They are thus used simultaneously as nouns and verbs, or are employed as nouns with the properties of verbs.

OBS. 2.—The participle, when used as a noun, may be itself put in the possessive case; as, *His being's end and aim. He was perplexed by the writing's obscurity.* Such forms are often objectionable, without being ungrammatical.

OBS. 3.—The participle, used as a noun, may take either of the articles before it, and may take a prepositional clause after it; as, *The sailing of ships in winter is dangerous; Covetousness is a worshipping of idols.*

But, if no article is prefixed, the preposition should not be introduced. Thus, it should be, *Covetousness is worshipping idols*, not *worshipping of idols*.

393. RULE XXIII.—The noun, which is limited by the word in the possessive case, is often unexpressed; as, *St. Peter's (church) at Rome is the finest structure in the world; That book is one of my brother's (books).*

OBS. 1.—The construction illustrated by the first example is appropriate only when the noun suppressed is so familiar in connection with the possessive word, as to present itself instantaneously to the mind in connection with the latter.

OBS. 2.—The construction illustrated by the second example can be used only when the noun suppressed is suggested by its previous employment, or by the context.

394. RULE XXIV.—Nouns and pronouns dependent upon prepositions are in the objective case; as, *The plague raged in London in the reign of Charles II.*

London, reign, and Charles are in the objective case.

OBS. 1.—An objective case follows some adjectives and adverbs; as, *She is like her mother; The prize is worth an effort; Stars night seemed other worlds.*

OBS. 2.—*Than* is sometimes used as a preposition after adjectives in the comparative. It is then followed by an objective case; as, *He was reading Pascal, a more profound writer than whom never wrote.*

This construction is exceedingly inelegant and objectionable. It is the only form in which the use of *than* as a preposition is still retained, and it should be permitted to become obsolete.

395. RULE XXV.—Nouns expressing limitations of time, space, value, or measure, are put in the objective case without a preposition; as, *He walks five miles every day; a child six years old; a tower two hundred feet high.*

393. What is the Twenty-third Rule—for the suppression of the noun qualified by the possessive? 394. Give the Twenty-fourth Rule—for the dependence of nouns on prepositions. 395. State the Twenty-fifth Rule—determining the case of nouns of price, measure, etc.

Miles, day, years, and feet are in the objective case.

Obs. 1.—After words denoting *price, cost, etc.*, the indefinite, and, more rarely, the definite article, is employed in this construction; as, *Flour is eighteen dollars a barrel; This silk is three dollars a yard; English calicoes are fifty cents the yard.*

Obs. 2.—Several explanations of this construction have been offered. None are entirely satisfactory, or equally applicable to all cases. The most common interpretation is to refer these objectives to a preposition understood; but nouns are similarly used in other languages without a preposition, and were so used in Anglo-Saxon.

In some instances, the former use of a preposition may be recognized, especially in the statement of price, but this cannot always be done; as, “*in nowmbre of fyve thousandis.*”—Wycliffe: S. John, c. vi. *They charge ten dollars per hundred weight, or by the hundred weight, or for the hundred weight.*

But the occurrence of two analogous forms does not necessarily prove that the one has grown out of the other.

396. RULE XXVI.—The infinitive follows, and is dependent upon a verb, an adjective, or a noun; as, *I wish to undertake a journey; his relations are anxious to help him; the desire to succeed in well-doing is praiseworthy.*

Obs. 1.—The infinitive mood is employed to extend either the subject or the predicate of a sentence.

Obs. 2.—The infinitive, without the sign of the infinitive *to*, follows the active voice of the verbs *behold, bid, can, dare* (intransitive), *feel, hear, help, know, let, make, may, need, observe, perceive, see, shall, will*: as, *I saw the sun rise.*

Obs. 3.—The tense of the infinitive is determined by the relation which its time bears to the time signified by the finite verb on which it depends.

I was happy to see him, means that my happiness was coincident with seeing him.

I was happy to have seen him, means that I am glad now for having seen him previously.

Obs. 4.—In some phrases, and with some verbs, the active and the passive infinitive may be used in nearly the same sense; thus, *I have a house to sell, or to be sold; I have a house to let, or to be let.*

In the active voice reference is made to the agent, the seller, or the letter; in the passive form, the reference is to the thing to be sold or to be let. So, in the phrases, *This was a thing to commend, or to be commended*, the former expression refers to the eulogist—the latter, to the thing eulogized.

397. RULE XXVII.—The infinitive and the participle are often used absolutely, or without being dependent upon any other word in the sentence; as, *To be candid*

396. State the Twenty-sixth Rule—for the construction of the infinitive.

397. Recite the Twenty-seventh Rule—in regard to the infinitive and the participle used absolutely.

with you, I think that you are wrong ; Taking that for granted, we may proceed to the main question.

398. RULE XXVIII.—The imperative is often used in an indeterminate manner, without any distinct nominative ; as, *Send me some corn, say ten bushels.*

Exercises.

Give the Rules for the construction of the dependent words in the following sentences.

Man's life is brief, and man's hopes are vain. Much depends upon John's conducting himself with prudence. They attended the services at St. Paul's. Take these flowers to her. The garden wall is ten feet high and two hundred feet long. The mischief has been caused by your losing your temper. His income amounts to four thousand dollars a year. Coal is ten dollars the ton. You should teach children to pronounce their words distinctly. To say nothing more, his procedure was very singular. Attend to this matter soon, suppose to-morrow. Admitting all you say, the proposition is not proved. There was great rejoicing on his recovering his estate. Hannibal's wintering at Capua was his ruin.

SECTION III.

THE CONNECTION OF WORDS, CLAUSES, ETC.

399. RULE XXIX.—Conjunctions connect together words, parts of sentences, and sentences.

400. RULE XXX.—Nouns and pronouns connected by a conjunction must be in the same case ; as, *Night and*

398. What is the Twenty-eighth Rule—relative to the imperative indeterminate ?
 399. What is the Twenty-ninth Rule—in regard to the use of Conjunctions ?
 400. What is the Thirtieth Rule—in regard to the cases of nouns joined by a conjunction ?

day succeed each other. The opportunity was presented to him, or her, or me.

OBS. 1.—Conjunctions frequently connect together verbs in the same tense and mood; as, *He understands Latin well, but still continues to study it.* This, however, is not due to the syntax of the conjunction, for verbs in different moods and tenses may be equally joined together by conjunctions; as, *England is now peopled by the English, but it was once peopled by the Celts, and may belong to a different race at some future time.*

OBS. 2.—The conjunction *than* couples like cases; as, *I love you better than him*—that is, *than I love him.* *It was no other than he who did it.*

OBS. 3.—The conjunction *as*, when employed to denote equivalence, is followed by the nominative case with a finite verb understood; as, *The one is as good as the other (is).*

OBS. 4.—The conjunctions *and* and *or* are frequently omitted; as, *I came, I saw, I conquered.*

Faint, weary, sore, emboiled, grieved, burnt,
With heat, toil, wounds, arms, smart, and inward fire.—*Spenser.*

OBS. 5.—Words importing relation, such as Relatives, and some Adverbs and Prepositions, have the effect of conjunctions; as, *It remains where you left it;* “*Before the cock crow, thou shalt deny me thrice.*”

* 401. RULE XXXI.—Conjunctions which connect together the principal and dependent clauses of a conditional sentence, require the verbs which follow them to be in the Indicative Mood, when a belief in the occurrence of the condition is implied; and the Subjunctive Mood, when doubt or denial is intended to be expressed.

If she is sincere (as I believe her to be), I shall be happy.

If she be sincere (which I doubt), I shall be happy.

OBS. 1.—The indicative mood is employed after a conjunction expressing contingency or supposition, when the presumption is in favor of the conditional proposition, or when the fact is believed to be certain.

The subjunctive mood should be employed when the presumption is against the conditional proposition, or when it is believed that the condition will not happen.

OBS. 2.—Sometimes the conjunction is omitted, and the nominative placed after the verb in the subjunctive; as, *Were I Alexander, I would do it;* *Were I not Alexander, I would do it.*

To the speakers it was manifestly impossible that Parmenio should be Alexander, or that Alexander should be Parmenio, or not Alexander.

OBS. 3.—The general principle seems to be, that when the state-

* 401. Repeat the Thirty-first Rule—for the employment of the subjunctive mood.

ment only is hypothetical, the indicative should be used ; when both the statement and the condition stated are presented as uncertain, the subjunctive is the proper mood. This principle, however, is liable to some apparent exceptions. Shakespeare says :

If it *were* done, when 'tis done, then 'twere well
It *were* done quickly.

But the use and the repetition of the subjunctive here indicates the irresolution and uncertainty of Macbeth.

OBS. 4.—The potential mood and the subjunctive mood of the verb *to be* are used in the principal clause, when the condition is future and uncertain, or when the condition is intended to be denied, if referring to what is past ; as, *It were well, if all were well over ; If I go, I may meet you ; If he were here* (as he is not), *I would ask him.*

402. RULE XXXII.—Verbs connected together by conjunctions, or conjunctive words, must be put in tenses corresponding with the times to be expressed ; as,

I say that I will go—if I am able, or if I can.

I said that I would go—if I were able, or if I could.

I said that I would have gone—if I had been able, or if I could have done so.

403. RULE XXXIII.—The conjunction *that* is frequently used at the beginning of a sentence for the purpose of introducing a substantive clause as the nominative to the verb ; as, *That he should have neglected to do it, is surprising indeed.*

OBS. 1.—Horne Tooke is right in referring the use of *that* as a conjunction to its signification as a demonstrative pronoun ; but its origin does not prevent it from being now unmistakably employed as a conjunction.

404. RULE XXXIV.—Adverbs, and not adjectives, should be used to qualify verbs and adjectives and other adverbs ; as, *The lecturer spoke well, not spoke good. It is excessively wrong, not excessive wrong. He spoke exceedingly well, not exceeding well.*

OBS.—It has been observed already that an adjective may be used instead of an adverb to extend the predicate, when the substantive idea implied in the verb is intended to be qualified, rather than the verb itself ; as, *The fire burns bright*, where the character of the burning, rather than its action, is qualified.

402. What is the Thirty-second Rule—relating to tenses connected together ?
403. What is the Thirty-third rule—for the use of the conjunction *that* with a substantive clause ? 404. What is the Thirty-fourth Rule—in regard to the employment of adverbs ?

405. RULE XXXV.—Two negatives in the same proposition make an affirmation, and are, therefore, improper when a distinctly negative sense is to be conveyed.

It is wrong to say, *You must not do it, by no means*; but it is proper to say, *It was not dishonest*, meaning that it was honest.

OBS.—When two negatives are improperly introduced, they completely neutralize each other, and destroy the meaning intended to be conveyed; as, *I will never not do it*, signifies, if it has any meaning at all, I will never abstain from doing it, or I will do it always.

But when two negatives are appropriately employed, they convey an affirmation, and modify it. *It was not dishonest*, denies the imputation of dishonesty, but scarcely asserts the fact that it was honest. *Nor did she not perceive him*, means that she did perceive him, but acted as if she did not.

Many delicate shades of affirmation, from the lightest insinuation to the most positive assertion, may be expressed through the intervention of a double negation.

406. RULE XXXVI.—Adverbs sometimes qualify phrases or propositions, or are used as interjections; thus, "*Right against the eastern gate.*" *He went, certainly, but it was too late.* *Honor hath no skill in surgery then?* *No.* *Away, ye gay landscapes.*

OBS.—The adverbs of affirmation and negation, *yes, certainly, assuredly, no, not so*, used in answering questions, constitute or stand for whole sentences. They are enabled to do so, because they qualify the sentences by which the questions are asked.

407. RULE XXXVII.—Interjections and interjectional phrases are construed separately by themselves; as, *Alas! poor Yorick! Ah! me miserable! Woe's me!*

OBS.—A nominative or an objective case frequently follows the interjection, and is dependent upon it.

An emotion may have an object, an aim, or an exciting cause. This may be the aim of the address, in which case the nominative (vocative) case is used; as, *Oh! John, look here*; or it may be the indirect object of the feeling, when the objective (dative) case is employed; as, *Ah me!*

405. State the Thirty-fifth Rule—for the effect of two negatives. 406. Give the Thirty-sixth Rule—relative to adverbs with phrases, propositions, etc. 407. What is the Thirty-seventh Rule—in regard to interjections?

Exercises.

Point out the Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Interjections in the following sentences, and give the Rules for their construction.

They fought gallantly, though they were overpowered. The boy was so agitated that he could not speak. They invited my sisters, and her, and me. John and I went to fish. That a man should forget his duty is not surprising, when he so often forgets his God. Oh! the folly and the iniquity of man! Certainly, he ought to keep his promise. Still, the vessel was not submerged. * I will not let thee go, unless thou bless me. * If my judgment is correct, you will succeed. * If my judgment be correct, you may succeed. That you have wronged me, doth appear in this. She performed remarkably well. I will tell him, if I have an opportunity. I would have told him, if I had had the opportunity. Many men believe nothing but what they see or feel. My teacher commends me when I do well. I much desire to go, but I cheerfully regard my mother's wishes and stay. Mary would have had her lesson prepared, if she had not procrastinated. Oh! how deeply I regret my folly! My visit at my uncle's was a very pleasant one, but I am glad to be back again in my dear father's house.

* SECTION IV.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SENTENCE.

408. There are two modes of arranging the words in a sentence—the ordinary, and the rhetorical mode.

Obs.—The ordinary arrangement is employed to express the meaning simply, and in accordance with the habitual usage of the language. The rhetorical arrangement deviates from the customary order for the purpose of producing specific rhetorical effects, by rendering certain elements of the sentence prominent and emphatic.

Babylon is fallen—exhibits the ordinary arrangement.

Fallen is Babylon, that great city—exhibits the rhetorical arrangement.

408. What are the two modes of arranging words in a sentence?

The employment of the rhetorical for the ordinary arrangement is called inversion. The consideration of the details and effects of inversion belongs rather to a treatise on Rhetoric than to an Elementary Grammar.

The following Rules and Observations apply to the ordinary arrangement only—unless it be stated otherwise.

409. RULE I.—The subject or nominative precedes the verb to which it belongs ; as,

The merchants were alarmed at the intelligence.

Cato was vanquished, but he was unsubdued.

EXCEPTIONS: 1.—The subject or nominative follows the verb in interrogative sentences, unless the question is asked by an interrogative pronoun ; as, *Is he sick? Why stand ye there idle? Who goes there?*

2. The subject or nominative follows the verb in the imperative mood ; as, *Sound ye the loud timbrel.*

3. The subject or nominative follows the verb in conditional clauses, when the conjunction is suppressed ; as, *Were it possible, it should be attempted. Had I your opportunities, I would make better use of them.*

4. The subject or nominative often follows the verb when the proposition is introduced by the adverbs *there, here, hence, then, neither, nor, how*, and in similar constructions ; as, *There was much water in that place ; Hence comes it, that we remain ignorant.*

OBS.—When the nominative does not precede the verb, in any of its compound forms, it is placed between the auxiliary and the verb, as in the expression of a wish, of an interrogation, or of a condition ; as, *May your shadow never grow less : may you live a thousand years. Does wealth insure contentment? Had I known your desires, I would have gratified them.*

410. RULE II.—The object follows the verb on which it depends, except when the object is expressed by a relative or interrogative pronoun, or is joined with an interrogative or relative adjective ; as,

Alexander conquered Darius, and overthrew the Persian

409. What is the First Rule of arrangement—in regard to the Nominative? What are the exceptions to the first rule—in Interrogative—in Imperative sentences—in Conditional Clauses—after some Adverbs? 410. What is the Second Rule—relating to the position of the object?

Empire ; This is the man whom the king delighteth to honor ; Whom went ye out to see ? Whatsoever things I have told you, these do ; What crimes have those unfortunate men committed ?

411. RULE III.—Nouns in the possessive case are always placed before the nouns on which they depend ; as,

The sun's light is much more powerful than the moon's rays.

412. RULE IV.—Adjectives immediately precede the nouns which they qualify ; as,

The bright sunshine ; A broad river.

To this rule there are several exceptions.

The adjective follows the noun when the former is employed, not as an attribute, but as a designation or title ; as, *George the Third ; Frederick the Great.*

When two or more adjectives relate to the same noun, they are frequently put after it ; as, *He was a man of a temper, gentle, amiable, and sincere.*

When the adjective is united with other words which complete, direct, or limit its meaning, it follows the noun ; as, *A composition worthy of all praise.*

OBS.—Relatives should be placed as near their antecedents as possible ; as, *The person, to whom a book was dedicated, was expected to reward its author.*

413. RULE V.—The infinitive follows the verb or other word on which it depends, but it may be separated from it by intervening words ; as,

The day began to dawn ; It was a sight beautiful to behold ; The garrison sallied forth with resolution and energy to drive back the besiegers.

OBS.—When the infinitive is used as the subject or as the object of a verb, it is used substantively, and its position is regulated by the rules applicable to substantives in such constructions.

411. What is the Third Rule—for the place of the Possessive Case ? 412. What is the Fourth Rule—relating to Adjectives ? What are the exceptions to the fourth rule—when the adjective is a designation or title—when two or more adjectives relate to the same Noun ? 413. What is the Fifth Rule—stating the position of the infinitive ?

414. RULE VI.—Adverbs should be placed in close connection with the words which they qualify; as,

He erred very frequently in exceedingly simple affairs.

This seems to be the only general rule that can be given in regard to the position of adverbs. If carefully applied, it includes nearly all the specific rules that have been presented on the subject.

Some of these special prescriptions may, however, be judiciously introduced.

1. Adverbs are generally placed before adjectives, after verbs, and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound forms of conjugation.
2. When there is only one adverb and one auxiliary, the adverb comes between the auxiliary and the verb.
3. If there be two auxiliaries, the adverb is placed between them—though it often follows both in the passive voice.
4. If there be three auxiliaries, which can occur only in the passive, the adverb follows all three.
5. If there be two auxiliaries and two adverbs, one adverb follows the first auxiliary, and the other adverb follows the second.
6. An adverb should never be intruded between the sign of the infinitive and the verb. Such expressions as the following are always wrong: *He promised to severely reprimand him for his offence.*
7. *Not* follows, and should not precede the verb (or the auxiliary) which it qualifies; as, *I do not offend*, or *I offend not*; *She does not deny*, or *she denies not*.
8. *Never* precedes a single verb; but often follows the verb *to be*; as, *She never told her love*; *The boy was never at his books*.
9. *Enough* is always placed after the adjective, or other word which it qualifies; as, *His speech was brilliant enough*.
10. The position of "*only*," "*merely*," "*simply*," and similar adverbs, must be carefully attended to, or the meaning of the sentence will be entirely changed from that which it is designed; as,

"*I only am left to tell you ;*" that is, *I* and no one besides —(but *only* is here an adjective).

"*I am left only to tell you ;*" that is for this, and for no other purpose.

"*I am left to tell you only ;*" that is, to tell no one else.

(Harrison, Struct. Engl. Lang.)

OBS.—Nearly all of these special rules will be observed by rigorously attaching the adverb to the word or words which it limits. The position of *not*, *never*, *enough*, is determined by idiomatic usage, but these are the chief cases not embraced by the general principle.

415. RULE VII.—Adverbs qualifying a whole sentence, or used emphatically, or in interjectional sentences, may be placed at the commencement of the sentence ; as,

Unfortunately, the season of action had passed ; Verily, verily, I say unto you ; How glorious is the splendor of the starry heavens !

OBS. 1.—These cases may be referred to rhetorical arrangement.

OBS. 2.—Some adverbs, as, *however*, *merely*, etc., qualifying a whole proposition, may be introduced at any convenient place among the opening words.

416. RULE VIII. — The preposition is generally placed immediately before the noun which forms its object ; as, *Here are the waters of Lethe, in which oblivion is found.*

OBS.—But the preposition often seems to be separated from its object, and to be placed after it, in accordance with idiomatic usage ; as, *Such conduct I cannot account for ; These are pleasures which the young delight in.*

This position of the preposition has been already explained by considering it to be connected with the verb, and to require to be construed in connection with it.

417. RULE IX.—The position of conjunctions varies according as they connect words, clauses, or sentences.

415. What is the Seventh Rule—for adverbs qualifying whole sentences, etc.
416. What is the Eighth Rule—for the place of Prepositions? 417. What is the Ninth Rule—in regard to the position of Conjunctions? What are the special rules for placing conjunctions—when single conjunctions connect words only—when they connect clauses—when monosyllabic and other conjunctions connect sentences?

Single conjunctions, which connect words only, must be placed between the words which they connect. But, when correlative conjunctions are employed, one is placed before each of the parts of the sentence so connected; as, *Flowers are bright, and beautiful, and sweet, but perishable; Either John or James must go.*

Conjunctions which connect clauses must be placed at the commencement of the clauses; as, *Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.*

Monosyllabic conjunctions, which connect sentences are generally placed at the beginning of the second or other sentences connected, with the exception of the conjunction *then*.

But conjunctions of more than one syllable, with the exception of *whereas*, may follow the first word or words of the second or other sentences connected.

Then usually avoids the first place; *whereas* always retains it.

* Part II.

ON THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

418. In studying the structure of sentences, the logical relations of words must be attended to as well as the grammatical.

OBS.—This means that the investigation of the mode in which sentences are formed requires the examination of the reciprocal dependence of the thoughts upon each other, and not simply of the forms and positions assigned to the words themselves in consequence of their grammatical connection.

419. Every Declaratory Sentence consists logically of three essential parts, and no more—the Subject, the Copula, and the Predicate; as, *The sun is shining.*

Here, *the sun* is the subject; *is* forms the copula; and

418. What must be considered in studying the structure of sentences? 419. Of what parts does every Declaratory Sentence logically consist?

shining is the predicate. This sentence is nearly equivalent to the expression, *The sun shines*.

OBS.—When the predicate consists of the verb simply, it may always be resolved into the logical copula and the participle of the verb.

The logical copula is always, and can only be, some part of the substantive verb *to be*.

420. Sentences are of three kinds, Simple, Complex, or Compound.

421. A **Simple Sentence** is one which contains a single statement, with or without extension of the subject and predicate ; as,

Alexander conquered. Alexander was victorious. Alexander the Great rapidly conquered all Asia west of the Euphrates.

OBS.—A simple sentence may be otherwise defined as one consisting of a single subject and a single predicate—and, still more briefly, as one containing a single Finite Verb.

422. The subject or the predicate of a sentence may be extended in various ways.

The following is a striking example of an enlarged subject:

“Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world, and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable princess, happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects (subj.), little anticipated her fate.”

The predicate may be extended in even more ways than the subject.

OBS —The various modes of enlarging the subject and the predicate, with the differences in the form and import of the sentences severally thus produced, are discussed in works specially devoted to the structure of the English tongue—and in many recent Grammars composed after the German type. As a general outline of the structure of English sentences is only contemplated here, the details which belong to these topics are omitted.

423. The **Complex Sentence** consists of two or

420. What are the three kinds of sentences? 421. What is a Simple Sentence?
 422. May the subject or the predicate be extended in more ways than one?
 423. Of what does a Complex Sentence consist?

more propositions, on one of which the rest are dependent; as, *You will succeed, if you do right.*

Here are two statements, propositions, or sentences—*You will succeed*, and *you do right*. The latter is dependent in construction upon the former; and both the connection and the dependence are expressed by the employment of the conjunction *if*.

Obs.—The rule may be otherwise expressed: A complex sentence consists of one principal subject and one principal predicate, but contains two or more finite verbs.

424. The proposition or sentence in a complex sentence on which the rest are dependent, is called the Principal Clause, or Sentence. The propositions, or sentences which depend upon the principal clause, are called Subordinate Clauses, or Sentences.

In the example given in the last section, *you will succeed* is the principal sentence; and *if you do right* is the subordinate sentence, or clause.

Obs. 1.—The subordinate sentence may come first without changing the relation of the sentences to each other, though more emphasis is probably attached to the clause which takes precedence. We may say, "*If you do right, you will succeed*," as well as, "*You will succeed, if you do right*." In the former case, most stress is laid upon the condition, and some doubt is implied of your doing right. In the latter case, attention is directed to the principal proposition, and the condition is thrown somewhat into the shade.

Obs. 2.—In many cases either clause may be made the principal, when the other will become the subordinate; thus,
She has on the same dress that she wore at the ball.
She wore at the ball the same dress that she has on.

It will be observed that there is not an exact identity of meaning between these two sentences; but they illustrate the facility of interchange between the parts of a complex sentence, in many instances.

425. Subordinate sentences may be divided into three kinds, the Noun-Sentence, the Adjective-Sentence, and the Adverbial-Sentence.

These designations are given to the several kinds of subordinate sentences, to signify the functions which they respectively discharge in the complex sentence.

424. What are the clauses of a complex sentence called? 425. How may subordinate sentences be divided?

The noun-sentence takes the place of a noun in the sentence; the adjective-sentence takes the place of an adjective; and the adverbial-sentence takes the place of an adverb.

"Duty requires *that we should succor the wretched*," is an example of a complex sentence with a noun-sentence as its subordinate clause.

"We found him in the house *that he formerly occupied*," illustrates the adjective-sentence.

"The horse ran away *when we reached the bridge*," is a complex sentence formed with an adverbial-sentence as the subordinate proposition.

Obs.—In each class of subordinate sentences there are many varieties, which can be pointed out and explained only by an elaborate and lengthened discussion. The fullest, and in many respects the most satisfactory treatment of this subject is to be found in Mulligan's *Structure of the English Language*. Briefer, but satisfactory expositions are given in Morell's *Grammar and Analysis*, in Angus's *Hand-book of the English Language*, in Crane's *Principles of Language*, in Gibbs's *Philological Studies*, in Greene's *Elements of English Grammar*, and in many other works.

This whole investigation, however, appears to belong more appropriately to the theory of composition than to technical Grammar. It should, therefore, be considered as a part of Rhetoric, or as introductory to that art.

426. A Compound Sentence is one in which two or more distinct statements are joined together in one sentence.

These statements are independent of each other, and are formed into a single sentence by the employment of conjunctions, or equivalent words.

The simple sentences *Man proposes—God disposes*, are united into a single compound sentence by introducing the conjunction *and*; thus, *Man proposes and God disposes*.

Penury, and famine, and pestilence prevailed; but, nevertheless, the war went on, and was prosecuted with even increased fury and resolution.

Here there are several statements: *Penury prevailed; Famine prevailed; Pestilence prevailed; The war went on; The war was prosecuted with even increased fury and resolution.*

These statements are all grammatically independent of

each other. They may be made in separate simple sentences. They are, in consequence, termed co-ordinate sentences or propositions. They are conjoined in one compound sentence by the use of the conjunctions *and* and *but*.

Hence proceeds the definition which is often given: "A compound sentence is one which contains two or more principal sentences or assertions co-ordinate with each other."

OBS.—In compound sentences, the connecting words are frequently omitted.

They *form, unite, charge, waver—all is lost*.—Byron.

The finite verbs and adjectives, or attributive phrases and objective terms, are also expressed only once, and are not repeated, but are understood with the other words to which they relate; as, *The air expands and becomes less dense by heat*—for, The air expands by heat and the air becomes less dense by heat.

Sentences in which certain parts are thus dropped are called contracted compound sentences, and the expression is said to be elliptical.

427. Compound sentences are divided into different classes, according to the nature of the connection of their members, and the character of the conjunctive words by which the parts are united.

They are copulative compound sentences when framed with such conjunctive words as *and, also, likewise, moreover, furthermore*, etc.

They are disjunctive compound sentences when formed with the connectives *either—or, neither—nor, otherwise*, etc.

They are adversative compound sentences when the parts are joined together by such words as *but, yet, still, nevertheless*, etc.

They are illative compound sentences when linked together with words indicating inference, such as, *for, therefore, hence, consequently*, etc.

Many other divisions or subdivisions of compound sentences have been proposed, but their introduction here would necessitate unprofitable minuteness.

427. How are Compound Sentences divided? What are the principal classes? What are Copulative Compound sentences? What are Disjunctive Compound sentences? What are Adversative Compound sentences? What are Illative Compound sentences?

OBS. 1.—Two or more of these classes may be combined in a single compound sentence; thus, *He visited Paris, and then went to Milan, but he did not go to Venice; nor did he reach Florence or Rome; therefore, he was deprived of the opportunity of studying the principal monuments of Italian art.*

In this sentence all the four classes of composition are combined. The first two propositions constitute a copulative compound sentence, if taken by themselves. The addition of the third proposition introduces an adversative member. The fourth proposition adds a disjunctive, and the fifth an illative member.

OBS. 2.—The same sentence may be both complex and compound.

428. In parsing complex and compound sentences, the several clauses or members should be first distinguished, and the connective words pointed out. The separate propositions should then be parsed in the same manner as simple sentences.

OBS.—In parsing contracted sentences the ellipses, or words omitted, should be supplied, and then the grammatical relations of all the words may be readily declared.

Example of the Analysis of a Complex Sentence.

“It is a proud and honorable distinction to be able to say that we belong to the only nation that has never been conquered.”

<i>a.</i> It is a proud and honorable distinction to be able to say,	{	Principal sentence.
<i>that</i>		
<i>b.</i> we belong to the only nation	{	Conjunction introducing the object.
<i>c.</i> that has never been conquered.		
	{	Subordinate noun-sentence forming the object of <i>say</i> .
	{	Relative clause. Subordinate adjective-sentence qualifying <i>nation</i> .

The propositions *a*, *b*, and *c* may now be separately parsed.

Example of the Analysis of a Compound Sentence.

“Bourdaloque is indeed a great reasoner, and inculcates his doctrines with much zeal, piety, and earnestness, but his style is verbose; he is disagreeably full of quotations from

428. How should we proceed in parsing complex and compound sentences?

the Fathers, and he wants imagination.”—(Example cited from Morell.)

a. Bourdaloue is indeed a great reasoner, { Principal sentence, co-ordinate with *b, c, d, e.*

and

Copulative Conjunction.

b. (*Bourdaloue*) inculcates his doctrines with much zeal, (*and*) piety, and earnestness, { Princ. sent. co- with *a*,—*Bourdaloue*—*and*—ellipses supplied.

but

Adversative conjunction.

c. his style is verbose;

{ Princ. sent. co- with *b*,—but
adversative to *a, b.*

(*and*)

{ Copulative Conj. (ellipse
supplied.)

d. he is disagreeably full of quotations from the Fathers,

{ Princ. sent. co- with *c*,—advers. to *a, b.*

and

Copulative Conjunction.

e. he wants imagination.

{ Princ. sent. co- with *c, d*,—adverse to *a, b.*

The propositions *a, b, c, d, e* may now be treated as simple sentences.

(For simple modes of Analysis, see p. 220.)

Exercises.

Distinguish the Simple, Complex, and Compound Sentences in the following examples : distribute the Complex and Compound Sentences into their several clauses or members—and parse the sentences.

Extreme care to avoid censure never answers its purpose.

Towards the west lies the fertile shore that stretches along the Adriatic.

There are many injuries which almost every man feels, though he may not complain of them.

Where'er we tread, 'tis haunted, holy ground.

The castle was very large, but there were few appliances for comfort.

Every man has at times in his mind the ideal of what he should be, but is not.

Procrastination is the thief of time.

Paul, the Apostle, wrote the Epistle to the Romans, and denounced pagan vices.

Because she has loved much, therefore much has been forgiven her.

I weep the more because I weep in vain.

Flowers form one of the first delights of early age, and have proved a source of instructive recreation to the most profound philosophers.

It is excellent

To have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous
To use it as a giant.

The downfall of Bonaparte is an impressive lesson to ambition, and affords a striking illustration of the inevitable tendency of that passion to bring to ruin the power and the greatness which it seeks so madly to increase.

We know that we have made no discoveries, and we think that no discoveries are to be made, in morality; nor many in the great principles of government, nor in the ideas of liberty, which were understood long before we were born, altogether as well as they will be after the grave has heaped its mould upon our presumption, and the silent tomb shall have imposed its law on our pert loquacity.

Who for the spangles wears the funeral pall!

But catch a gleam beyond it, and 'tis bliss.

No really great man ever thought himself so.

The proper force of words lies not in the words themselves, but in their application.

Wherever the forms of reasoning appropriate only to the natural world are applied to spiritual realities, it may be truly said, that the more strictly logical the reasoning is in all its parts, the more irrational it is as a whole.

These few examples may suffice as an exercise on the different kinds of sentences. The more intricate forms of composition have been excluded—as their consideration should be postponed till the student is prepared to enter into the philosophical study of language, and its application in Rhetoric. If further practice is desired, the great authors of the English Tongue furnish the best parsing books. For simple sentences recourse may be had to Hume, Lamb, and Hazlitt; for complex sentences, to Shakespeare, Milton, Burke, Coleridge; for compound sentences, to Byron, Shelley, Jeffrey, Macaulay. But any series of English Reading Books will furnish texts of progressively increasing difficulty, and may be employed as convenient manuals.



PART IV.

P R O S O D Y.

429. Prosody, in its widest acceptation, includes everything connected with the music or melody of language.

In its ordinary and restricted signification, prosody designates that part of grammar which treats only of the principles of versification. But, in its larger and more philosophic sense, prosody embraces orthoëpy, or the correct pronunciation of words; punctuation, or the distinction of the parts of a sentence, and of meanings, by pauses in the utterance; accent, emphasis, rhythm, metre, and the combination of metres in the different forms of verse, for the purpose of adapting the melody of language to the sentiment expressed.

Punctuation indicates the various inflections of meaning; the grammatical relations of the several clauses of a sentence; and the separation of sentences from each other, by the introduction of pauses of different duration. In perfect composition these pauses should correspond with the requirements of melodious utterance, with the successive modifications of the meaning, and with the grammatical structure of sentences. The sense and the structure of the sentence or sentences should agree, and the sound and the intermissions of sound should furnish an echo to the sense.

(Sentences should be so constructed as not to require the marks of punctuation to indicate either their construction or their meaning; and this is a rule of law in regard to the interpretation of legal documents and legislative enactments. But the marks of punctuation employed should always accord with the pauses required in the utterance of sentences, to insure a pleasing and melodious effect. Hence, although punctuation is usually applied only to indicate relations of syntax, it may be more appropriately considered under the head of prosody.)

The subjects of prosody will accordingly be Punctuation, Accent, Emphasis, Rhythm, Metre, and Versification.

* PUNCTUATION.

430. Punctuation is the division of a written or printed composition by marks, which are called points or stops. These marks regulate the utterance of the sentences by indicating the appropriate pauses, and serve to show their grammatical construction.

431. The points in general use are the following :

The comma . . . ,	The note of interrogation ?
The semicolon . . ;	The note of exclamation !
The colon . . . :	The parenthesis . . ()
The period, or full-stop .	The dash . . . —

Obs.—The first four are the principal stops, and are the points properly so called, or grammatical points, being employed for the grammatical division of sentences.

The last four have been termed rhetorical points; as they are employed for the indication of the peculiar rhetorical forms given to a sentence or phrase.

432. The Comma (,) indicates the shortest pause; the Semicolon (;) a pause longer than the comma; the Colon (:) a pause longer than the semicolon;

430. What is Punctuation? 431. Name and write down the Points in general use. 432. What do the four principal points severally indicate?

and the Period, or full-stop (.), the longest pause of all

The importance of punctuation and of the proper employment of pauses, is illustrated by the following example of the correct and of the incorrect introduction of points.

Every lady in the land
Has twenty nails upon each hand ;
Five and twenty on hands and feet :
And this is true without deceit.

The asseveration is untrue, and the statement contradictory and absurd. But punctuate the lines correctly, and all errors disappear.

Every lady in the land
Has twenty nails ; upon each hand
Five ; and twenty on hands and feet :
And this is true without deceit.

OBS.—It is usually said that a comma indicates a pause of sufficient length to count one ; a semicolon, to count two ; a colon, to count three ; and a period, to count four.

The rule is useful in giving elementary instruction in reading ; but it must not be too strongly insisted on, as the duration of the various pauses varies within narrow limits, according to the diversities of style, sentiment, and sense.

433. The Comma marks the slightest pause, and the least interruption in the grammatical continuity of the sentence.

“ They sought for principles of jurisprudence in the Mosaic law, and for precedents to guide their ordinary conduct in the Books of Judges and Kings.”

The comma is employed to indicate the pause required in consequence of the omission of a conjunction, the suppression of a verb or other word needed to complete the grammatical construction, to show the separation of a subordinate from a principal sentence, of subordinate sentences or phrases from each other, and also when there is contrast or opposition between words or clauses.

OBS.—The special rules for punctuation are very numerous, and are, in great measure, very unsettled—their employment in practice being generally regulated by the usage of the printers. The rules for the insertion or omission of the comma are both more numerous and more fluctuating than for any of the other points.

434. The Semicolon (;) is used to separate the parts of complex and of compound sentences. It is also employed in place of a comma when commas have preceded, and when a longer pause and a different distinction are required.

“But on this grand point of the restoration of the country, there is not one syllable to be found in the correspondence of our ministers, from the first to the last; they felt nothing for a land desolated by fire, sword, and famine: their sympathies took another direction; they were touched with pity for bribery, so long tormented with a fruitless itching of its palms; their bowels yearned for usury, that had long missed the harvest of its returning months; they felt for peculation, that had been for many years raking in the dust of an empty treasury; they were melted into compassion for rapine and oppression, licking their dry, parched, and unbloody jaws.”

OBS.—The special rules for the use of the semicolon are not numerous.

435. The Colon (:) is employed when the sentence might be divided into two by the use of the full-stop, if it were not desirable to connect the statements more closely together.

The colon is also employed in place of the semicolon, when semicolons have preceded it, and a longer pause is needed.

Behold the child, by nature's kindly law,
Pleased with a rattle, tickled with a straw :
Some livelier plaything gives his youth delight,
A little louder, but as empty quite :
Scarfs, garters, gold, amuse his riper stage,
And beads and prayer-books are the toys of age :
Pleased with this bauble still, as that before,
Till tired he sleeps, and life's poor play is o'er.—*Pope.*

OBS.—The tendency at present is to discard the colon almost entirely. The special rules for its employment are very few.

436. The Period (.) or full-stop indicates the close of a sentence, and the completion of its sense and grammatical structure.

“All religions were the same to him. In private circles, indeed, he was in the habit of talking with profane contempt of the most sacred things. He therefore determined to let the king have the delight and glory of effecting a conversion. Some management, however, was necessary.”

OBS. 1.—In a rapid and rhetorical style sentences are often separated by a period, which would ordinarily be joined in a single compound sentence, and be divided by a colon, or even by a semi-colon.

OBS. 2.—There is only one rule for the use of the period, and that is, to finish when you are done—to come to a full stop when the grammatical expression of the sense is completed. There are, consequently, no special rules for its use.

OBS. 3.—When words are abbreviated, or are represented only by their initials, the full-stop is used to indicate their contraction; as,

Sect. — Vol. — A. D. — D. D. — Jan. — Mr. — viz. — sill. — i. e.

In these cases the point is a mere sign of contraction. It does not affect the utterance, the grammatical structure, or the sense.

437. The Note of Interrogation (?) indicates a question, and is placed at the end of the sentence in which a direct question is asked.

“Why will they not let me remain in obscurity and inaction? Are they apprehensive that, if an atom of me remains, the sect has something to fear?”

OBS. 1.—When several questions are combined in one compound sentence, the mark of interrogation is placed only after the last.

OBS. 2.—When the question is indirect, that is, when the question is implied, or stated to have been asked, but is not actually asked by the form of the expression, the note of interrogation should not be employed.

“I asked him why he wept.”

438. The Note of Exclamation (!) is placed after interjections, and after words and phrases used like interjections.

“Blest paper credit! last and best supply!

That lends corruption lighter wings to fly!”

There are three principal cases in which the note of

436. What does the Period or full-stop indicate? 437. What does the Note of Interrogation indicate? 438. Where is the Note of Exclamation employed?

exclamation is used. 1. After interjections, and similar words and phrases; 2. After invocations; 3. After exclamatory questions to which no reply is expected.

439. The Parenthesis () is used to mark and include a clause hastily thrown in between the parts of a sentence, without being needed for the completion of either the grammatical structure or the sense.

“ Thus (she pursued) I discipline a son.”

OBS. 1.—The parenthesis has two forms; brackets [] and curves (). The former are used when the intrusive phrase is foreign to the subject of the sentence, and also to enclose the larger parenthesis, when one parenthesis includes another.

OBS. 2.—Parentheses should be avoided as much as possible. They are always cumbrous, and usually awkward. They often conceal both grammatical and logical confusion. Commas are usually substituted for them now.

440. The Dash is used to denote an abrupt and emphatic pause, to continue the sentence by the addition of new members, and to introduce changes of grammatical structure.

“ Every declaration of hostility renovated, and every act pursued with double animosity—the overrunning of Lombardy—the subjugation of Piedmont—the possession of its impregnable fortresses—the seizing on all the neutral States of Italy—our expulsion from Leghorn—instances, forever renewed, for our expulsion from Genoa—Spain rendered subject to them and hostile to us—Portugal bent under the yoke—half the empire overrun and ravaged, were the only signs which this mild republic thought proper to manifest of her pacific sentiments.”

OBS. 1.—The dash is a pause of variable length. The duration of the pause is determined in part by the sense, but mainly by the rhetorical effect contemplated. When it follows one of the regular or grammatical points, it requires the lengthening of the pause signified by that stop.

OBS. 2.—The dash is often used arbitrarily and capriciously. There is a disposition in current literature to employ it in excess and without reason.

441. There are many other marks employed for various purposes in written and printed compositions, but, as they have no relation to either the construction of sentences or to the pauses in their enunciation, they are not properly included in punctuation.

They are only technical signs, and have scarcely any better claim to be embraced in English Grammar than the dot over the small letter *i*, or the stroke across the small letter *t*.

It will be sufficient to indicate them here. They are—
The Apostrophe ('); the Hyphen (-); the Diæresis (¨); the Acute Accent (´); the Grave Accent (`); the Circumflex Accent (^); the Caret (^); the Brace (}); the Macron (¯); the Breve (˘); the Asterisk (*); the Index or Hand (☞); the Dagger or Obelisk (‡); the Double Dagger (‡); the Paragraph (¶); the Parallel Lines (||); the Section (§); and several others of less importance.

ACCENT AND EMPHASIS.

442. **Accent**, in English Grammar, denotes the habitual stress laid upon one of the syllables of a word, by which it is rendered more prominent than the other syllables of that word; as, *in-vent'*, *in-ven'-tion*, *in'-ven-to-ry*.

Obs. 1.—This definition strictly applies to the Accute Accent only—the only accent which sensibly affects the grammar of the English tongue. The distinction of accents into Acute, Grave, and Circumflex does not require notice in this place. Their consideration belongs to practical elocution, or to instruction in reading.

Obs. 2.—It is impossible to pronounce a long series of syllables with a uniform stress on each; and it is painful to both speaker and hearer to utter many syllables in succession with unvarying force. As the voice rises and falls, one syllable will be pronounced with greater force and fulness, and this gives rise to accentuation.

441. Are any other marks employed in composition? What are they? 442. What does accent denote in English Grammar?

443. All English words of more than one syllable have one syllable accented. Many polysyllabic words have a secondary accent in addition to the principal accent; as, *im''-por-tun'-i-ty*, *al'-li-ga''-tor*.

OBS.—The greater number of English words may be reduced under special rules of accentuation; but to each rule there are many exceptions, as the Orthoëpy of the English language is even more irregular than its Orthography.

444. Emphasis is the unusual stress laid on a particular word or words in a sentence, to attract attention to them, to increase their prominence, and to augment the significance of the expression in which they occur.

“And Nathan said unto David, *Thou* art the man.”

The importance of the correctness of Emphasis is shown by its abuse. “And he said unto his sons, Saddle *me* the ass. So they saddled *him* the ass.”

Emphasis differs from accent in this: Emphasis relates to words; Accent, to syllables. Accent determines Orthoëpy; emphasis, Signification. Accent remains fixed on particular syllables; emphasis changes from one word to another with the change of import.

RHYTHM AND METRE.

445. Rhythm is the orderly succession of sounds, regulated by the intension and remission of the voice.

OBS.—In all the processes of creation a rhythmical movement may be discerned; but it is more distinctly presented in the successions of sound than in any other phenomena. Its application to language is only an imitation of natural law, in accordance with physical and intellectual tendencies.

446. The rhythmical arrangement of mere sounds produces music. The rhythmical arrangement of the

443. What is the general rule in regard to the accentuation of English words? What words may have more than one accent? 444. What is Emphasis? 445. What is Rhythm? 446. What does the rhythmical arrangement of mere sounds produce?

articulate and significant sounds of language produces the cadences of prose and the measures of verse.

OBS.—Rhythm occurs and should be observed in prose as well as in verse. But the rhythms of prose are more complicated and irregular than those of verse; their range is less restricted, and is indefinitely variable; and as they do not occur in recurrent systems, their flow cannot be anticipated.

447. Rhythm is separate and distinct from the meaning of the words in which it is embodied.

It may be exhibited in the humming of a tune as much as in the lines of poetry.

OBS.—Though rhythm and sense are distinct and separate, the rhythm should always be in perfect accordance with the meaning of the words, and with the sentiment conveyed.

448. Rhythm admits of various modifications. It may be grave or gay, slow or rapid, simple or complicated, regular and recurrent, or irregular and discontinuous.

The regular and recurrent forms of rhythm belong only to verse. The irregular and discontinuous forms characterize prose as well as verse.

449. The different kinds of rhythm are determined by the elements of which they are composed, and by which the rhythm is measured.

In all rhythm there is an orderly succession of strong and weak sounds. In the rhythm of language there is an orderly succession of long and short, or of accented and unaccented syllables.

450. In English rhythms the succession of the accented and of the unaccented syllables, and the order of their succession, determine the rhythm.

What does the rhythmical arrangement of articulate and significant sounds produce? 447. Is the rhythm dependent upon the meaning of the words? 448. What modifications does rhythm admit? 449. How are the different kinds of rhythm determined? 450. What determines the rhythm in English rhythms?

451. The interval between the accented syllables, and the order in which they stand to the unaccented syllables, furnish the measure of the rhythm, which is called a Metre.

The measure, or metre, is called also a Foot, because the forcible descent of the foot upon the ground marks the time or accent in the rhythmical movement of dancing, and in beating time to music.

452. The measures, metres, or feet are the elements of rhythm.

'Tis moonlight óver Óman's séa.

Téll me nó of jóys abóve.

There's a bówer of róses by Béndemeer's stréam.

These lines exhibit different measures, metres, or feet, and, consequently, a diversity of rhythms.

Obs.—The term Metre is loosely employed to designate a verse, or the combination of metres into lines of determinate length. Hence it will be expedient to designate by the name Foot, the elementary constituent of the rhythm.

453. Several convenient modes have been employed to mark by signs the relation of the syllables in a foot to each other.

Sometimes an acute accent is placed over the accented syllable; as,

The Assyrian came dówN like a wólf on the fólD.

Sometimes the signs indicating the long and short vowels in classical versification are used; as,

A shārp āccūsēr, bŭt ă hēlplēss friēnd.

Another mode, proposed by Latham, is to mark the accented syllables by *a*, and the unaccented syllables by *x*. Thus the first example in this section would be represented by

xxa xxa xxa xxa,

and the second example by

xa xa xa xa xa.

451. What furnishes the measure of the rhythm? 452. What are the elements of rhythm? 453. How is the relation of the syllables in a Foot represented?

OBS.—The accent alone will be employed henceforward in the notation of actual verses; the classical signs, in furnishing models of scansion; and both Latham's and the classical marks, in exhibiting the characteristics of the different feet.

454. The feet of common occurrence in English verse are the Iambus, the Trochee, the Anapæst, and the Dactyle.

The Iambus, x a, — —, as in *presérve*,—an unaccented syllable followed by an accented one.

The Trochee, a x, — —, as in *sóftly*,—an accented syllable followed by an unaccented one.

The Anapæst, x x a, — — —, as in *reprimánd*,—two unaccented syllables followed by an accented one.

The Dactyle, a x x, — — —, as in *mérrily*,—an accented syllable followed by two accented ones.

OBS. 1.—The dactylic rhythm occurs very rarely in English verse.

OBS. 2.—There are some other feet which may be named, as they are occasionally employed. These are—

The Spondee, a a, — —, as in *shéepfóld*,—two accented syllables.

The Pyrrhic, x x, — —, as in *at his* (home),—two unaccented syllables.

The Tribrach, x x x, — — —, as in (inim-) *itable*,—three unaccented syllables.

The Cretic, or Amphimacer, a x a, — — —, as in *Górgon-éyed*,—an unaccented syllable between two accented ones.

The Amphibrach, or Amphibrachys, x a x, — — —, as in *espoúsal*,—an accented between two unaccented syllables.

The Choriambus, a x x a, — — —, as in *âërolîté*, may perhaps be found in English versification.

THE STRUCTURE OF VERSE.

455. Versification is the rhythmical arrangement of language according to a regularly recurrent order of Feet.

The single principle of verse is repetition—usually, but perhaps not universally, of sound. This principle is variously applied in the verse of different languages.

In Hebrew, it appears as the recurrence of the thought, or parallelism, with a corresponding parallelism in the expression, and in the length of the parallel members.

454. What Feet are commonly employed in English verse? State the characteristics of the Iambus, the Trochee, the Anapæst, and the Dactyle. 455. What is Versification?

Canst thou draw out leviathan with a net ?
or his tongue with a cord which thou lettest down ?

In Sanskrit, in Greek, and in Latin, the recurrence is shown by the return of combinations of long and short syllables.

Beaūtīfŭl, ēagēr, trīūmphānt, hē lēapt bäck āgāin tō
hīs trēasūre.

In Anglo-Saxon, in the old Scandinavian tongues, and in very early English, the repetition takes place in the initial letters, and is called Alliteration.

Instead of citing an Anglo-Saxon couplet, a specimen of pure alliteration is introduced.

Cossack commanders cannonading come.

In the modern languages the recurrence takes place by the return of accented syllables at regular intervals.

Rhyme, in all its forms, is an additional device of the same character, being the regular recurrence of the same sounds in corresponding positions.

Now glóry tó the Lórd of Hósts, from whóm all glóries áre!
And glóry tó our sóvereign liége, King Hénry óf Navárré!

456. A Verse, or Line of Poetry, consists of the combination of a definite number of feet; or of a certain number of recurrences of the foot adopted as the measure of the rhythm.

457. The division of a verse into its metrical constituents, or into the feet of which it is composed, is called Scansion.

Scansion is thus the separation of the accented syllables with their dependent unaccented ones from each other; or the indication of the rhythmical intervals between the accented syllables.

Perpendicular lines drawn between the several feet are employed to indicate the scansion of verses. Thus :

Whó has not | heárd of the | Vále of Cash- | mére?

458. Verses, or the different kinds of verse, are distinguished and named from the feet, and from the number of feet, employed in them.

Thus a verse consisting of five Iambic feet is called an Iambic Pentameter.

And Lá- | ra sleéps | not whére | his fá- | thers sleép.

It is composed of Iambuses, therefore, it is Iambic.

It consists of five Iambuses, therefore, it is called a Pentameter, or line of five metres—Pentameter meaning five metres.

459. The principal forms of English verse are the Iambic, the Trochaic, the Anapæstic, and the Dactylic, according as the rhythm is built upon the Iambus, the Trochee, the Anapæst, or the Dactyle.

Obs.—There are some other forms, but they are either extravagant improprieties, like the imitations of the Classic Metres, or they are very unusual, and rarely sustained throughout a poem.

460. The chief combinations of feet are into lines consisting of one foot or metre, two metres, three metres, four metres, five metres, six metres, seven metres, and occasionally eight metres.

The lines so formed are called respectively Monometer, Dimeter, Trimeter, Tetrameter, Pentameter, Hexameter, Heptameter, and Octometer.

461. In the commencement of a verse an unaccented syllable is frequently deficient; and in the close of a verse an unaccented syllable is sometimes redundant, and sometimes in defect.

462. One foot may occasionally be exchanged for

458. How are verses distinguished and named? 459. What are the principal forms of English verse? 460. What are the chief combinations of feet into lines? What are these lines respectively termed? 461. Are verses always perfect in the number of their feet? 462. May one foot be substituted for another?

another of equal weight, especially at the beginning of a verse.

Thus the Trochee sometimes takes the place of an Iambus.

Lánds he | could meás- | ure; térms | and tídes | preságe.

The Anapæst and even the Tribrach are sometimes used for an Iambus.

Saith Brá- | cy the bárd; | so lét | it knéll.

Sometimes an Iambus gives place to a Spondee.

Fírm lánd | émbós- | om'd wíth- | óut fírm- | amént.

Similar substitutions occur in Trochaic, Anapæstic, and Dactylic verse; but in them they are less frequent, usually less agreeable, and present a greater appearance of irregularity.

463. English verse is divided into two distinct classes—Rhyming and Blank Verse.

This distinction is founded upon the characteristics of the final syllables of the verses, according as they agree or do not agree in sound with each other.

Obs.—Both rhyming and blank verse may be constructed with different feet; and with a fewer or larger number of such feet; but the most common form of blank verse is the Iambic Pentameter.

464. Rhyming verse is that in which the final syllables of two or more verses agree in sound.

The needy traveller, serene and gay,

Walks the wild heath, and sings his toil away.

Obs.—Sometimes rhymes are introduced into the body of the verse.

*And the silken, sad, uncertain rustling of the purple curtain
Thrilled me—filled me with fantastic terrors never felt before.*

This is called Sectional Rhyme.

465. Three things are required to constitute a perfect rhyme: The vowel sounds and the sounds succeeding must be identical; the sounds preceding the vowel sounds must be different; the rhyming syllables must be similarly accented.

463. Into what two classes is English verse divided? 464. What constitutes Rhyming Verse? 465. What is requisite for a perfect rhyme?

“Remind us” and “behind us” are perfect rhymes; so are “sublime” and “time”: but “roaming” and “coming,” “shut” and “put,” are imperfect or false rhymes.

The agreement required is solely in the sound of the syllables, not in their spelling. “Cost” and “post” do not rhyme; “straight” and “fate” do.

466. Rhymes may be single, double, or treble, according as the rhyme rests upon one, two, or three syllables.

“Breeze” and “freeze” are single rhymes. “Double” and “trouble” are double rhymes. “Satiety” and “variety” are treble rhymes.

467. When the rhymes occur at the end of two successive lines, these form a Couplet.

Sure, 'tis an orthodox opinion,
That grace is founded in dominion.

468. When the rhymes occur at the end of three successive lines, they form a triplet.

Clime of the unforgotten brave,
Whose land, from plain to mountain cave,
Was freedom's home, or glory's grave.

469. Two couplets joined together, or four lines rhyming alternately, or a couplet between two rhyming lines, are called a Quatrain.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The deep unfathom'd caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

470. Longer combinations of rhyming lines are called Stanzas, if the rhymes recur according to a regular order.

OBS.—The consideration of the quatrain, stanza, and other combinations of lines, belong to the second part of versification, which treats of metrical systems, or the union of verses in the construction of poems.

466. How are rhymes distinguished? Give examples of perfect and imperfect rhymes. 467. What is a Couplet? 468. What is a Triplet? 469. What is a Quatrain? 470. What are longer combinations of rhyming lines called?

471. Blank Verse is verse composed without final, sectional, or other rhymes.

Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad:
Silence accompanied; for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, these to their nests,
Were slunk, all but the wakeful nightingale;
She, all night long, her amorous descant sung.

Obs.—Blank Verse occurs in various forms in English poetry. Besides the common form just illustrated, many more direct imitations of classical models have been attempted with little success.

The Heroic Hexameter has been employed by Longfellow, Kingsley, Herschel, and many others.

Só passed the | mórning a- | wáy. And | ló ! with a | súmmons so- | nórous
Sounded the | béll from its | tówer, and | óver the | méadows a | drúm béat.

The Hexameter and Pentameter verse has been exemplified by Coleridge.

In the hex- | ameter | rises the | fountain's | silvery | column:
In the pent- | ameter | aye | falling in | melody | back.

The Sapphic and Adonic verse, attempted by Southey, was ridiculed by Canning.

Neédy | Knífc-Grínd- | er ! whíther | áre you | góing ?
Róugh is | the ród, | your whéel is | ónt of | órder—
Bleák blóws | the blást ; | your hát has | gót a | hólc in't,
Só have your | breéches !

Collins, in his Ode to Evening, has employed Iambic blank verses of unequal length in the formation of regular stanzas; and Southey, in his Thalaba, as well as Shelley in his Queen Mab, have endeavored to reproduce the free lyric movement of the Greek choral songs by employing unrhymed verses of unequal length and varying rhythm.

THE COMBINATION OF VERSES.

472. The Rhythm of verse is either discrete or continuous.

473. The rhythm is discrete when it is completed in each line.

474. The rhythm is continuous when it flows on through several successive lines, and is closed only with the last.

471. How is Blank Verse composed? 472. Of what two kinds is the rhythm of verse? 473. When is the rhythm discrete? 474. When is the rhythm continuous?

475. Most poems in English are written in discrete rhythm.

Dithyrambic poems, or odes, such as Dryden's Ode on St. Cecilia's Day and Collins's Ode on the Passions, are written in continuous rhythm.

OBS.—There are several poems of more regular form than odes, in which the rhythm is formally discrete, but really continuous. The several verses are of corresponding length, the final rhymes are symmetrically arranged, but the complicated melody is not completed till the end of the strain.

Of this character are Poe's *Raven* and *Annabel Lee*, and Tennyson's *Lady of Shalott*.

476. The expression of verse is varied by the character and number of the feet employed in the several lines; by the number of lines joined together in a stanza or system; and by the modes in which they are combined.

OBS.—The actual modes in which verses of the same or of different kinds have been conjoined, are so numerous, and the possible modes in which they may be conjoined are so innumerable, that no attempt can be made here to illustrate them all, and no sufficient space can be allowed for explaining the diversity of effects produced by diversity of combinations, or the causes of such diversity of effects.

477. The most familiar combinations of verses into systems shorter than stanzas are the following.

1. Blank Verse, consisting of single unrhymed lines uniformly repeated.

OBS.—In this form of versification a partial continuity of rhythm is produced by the repetition of the complete rhythms of the single lines, and the extension of the sense from one line to another.

2. The Couplet, two consecutive lines rhyming together, and forming a complete system, continually repeated.

In full-blown dignity see Wolsey stand,
Law in his voice and fortune in his hand;
To him the church, the realm, their powers consign,
Through him the rays of regal bounty shine;
Turn'd by his nod the stream of honor flows,
His smile alone security bestows.—*Sam. Johnson.*

475. In what rhythm are most English poems written? 476. How is the expression of verse varied? 477. What are the more common systems of verse, shorter than stanzas?

3. The Triplet, three consecutive lines rhyming together.

The harder question yet remains behind,
 What pains a parent and a prince can find,
 To punish an offence of this degenerate kind.—*Dryden*.

4. The Quatrain; consisting of four lines. This assumes many forms, according to the relative length of the lines, the number and the position of the rhymes.

The undistinguish'd seeds of good and ill,
 Heaven, in his bosom, from our knowledge hides;
 And draws them in contempt of human skill,
 Which oft for friends mistaken foes provides.—*Dryden*.

478. Stanza is the generic name given to those regular combinations of four or more lines which do not exceed nine lines.

479. The varieties of the stanza are very numerous. The following are the characteristic types.

1. The Quintain, or stanza of five lines :

When Nature tries her finest touch,
 Weaving her vernal wreath,
 Mark ye how close she veils her round,
 Not to be traced by sight or sound,
 Nor soiled by ruder breath.—*Keble*.

2. The Sextain, or stanza of six lines :

So changes mortal life with fleeting years;
 A mournful change, should Reason fail to bring
 The timely insight that can temper fears,
 And from vicissitude remove its sting;
 While Faith aspires to seats in that domain
 Where joys are perfect—neither wax nor wane.
—*Wordsworth*.

3. The Septain, or stanza of seven lines :

So on the top of his subduing tongue
 All kind of arguments and question deep,

All replication prompt, and reason strong,
 For his advantage still did wake and sleep;
 To make the weeper laugh, the laughter weep;
 He had the dialect and different skill,
 Catching all passions in his craft of will.—*Shakespeare.*

Obs.—This stanza is called the Rhyme Royal. It was employed by Chaucer in the *Tale of the Clerke of Oxenforde*, by Spenser in his *Hymns on Love and Beauty*, and by Shakespeare in his *Lover's Complaint*.

4. The Ottava Rima, or stanza of eight lines.

This is imitated from the Italian. The first six lines rhyme alternately, the last two rhyme together.

In the first year of freedom's second dawn
 Died George the Third,—although no tyrant, one
 Who shielded tyrants, till each sense withdrawn
 Left him nor mental nor external sun:
 A better farmer ne'er brushed dew from lawn,
 A worse king never left a realm undone!
 He died—but left his subjects still behind,
 One half as mad—and t'other no less blind.—*Byron.*

5. The Spenserian Stanza, consisting of nine lines—the last an Alexandrine, or verse of six Iambuses:

The Niobe of nations! there she stands,
 Childless and crownless in her voiceless woe;
 An empty urn within her withered hands,
 Whose holy dust was scattered long ago;
 The Scipios' tomb contains no ashes now;
 The very sepulchres lie tenantless
 Of their heroic dwellers: dost thou flow,
 Old Tiber! through a marble wilderness?
 Rise with thy yellow waves, and mantle her distress!
 —*Byron.*

Obs.—This beautiful but difficult form of versification was constructed by Spenser from the *Ottava Rima*, by altering the order of the rhymes, and adding an Alexandrine, or Iambic Hexameter at the close. In this verse he wrote the *Faërie Queene*. It is also the verse of Thomson's *Castle of Indolence*, Beattie's *Minstrel*, and Byron's *Childe Harold*. It ranks as one of the highest and most effective species of English verse.

480. The Sonnet is a form of versification intermediate

diate between discrete and continuous rhythm, and partaking of the nature of both.

This is the most intricately formal type of verse composition. Wordsworth's Sonnet on Milton furnishes a fine example of this difficult form of versification.

Milton! thou shouldst be living at this hour:
 England hath need of thee; she is a fen
 Of stagnant waters; altar, sword, and pen,
 Fireside, the heroic wealth of hall and bower,
 Have forfeited their ancient English dower
 Of inward happiness. We are selfish men;
 O, raise us up, return to us again,
 And give us manners, virtue, freedom, power!
 Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart;
 Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea;
 Pure as the naked heavens, majestic, free,
 So didst thou travel on life's common way,
 In cheerful godliness; and yet thy heart
 The lowliest duties on herself did lay.

The sonnet consists of fourteen Iambic Pentameters, arranged in two quatrains, followed by a sextain. It usually contains five rhymes, which may be disposed in various ways; but it sometimes introduces as many as seven.

OBS.—The sonnet is a complete poem within a definite and narrow compass. It is perfectly symmetrical in form, and is strictly limited in extent. The rhythm should flow continuously from the beginning to the end; and yet it is constructed with verses of uniform length and character, and with rhymes regularly recurring.

The English language is singularly unfavorable to the development of the peculiar graces of the sonnet. Shakespeare, Milton, and Wordsworth have succeeded best in its cultivation.

481. There are other forms of symmetrical versification.

Such are Lozenges, Hatchets, Altars, Wings, Eggs, etc., in which the varying lengths of the lines produce the figures of the things designated by these names.

OBS.—These regular irregularities are contrived only by poets of more dexterity than taste or judgment. Examples may be found in Herbert, Wither, etc.

Of what does the sonnet consist? 481. Are there other forms of symmetrical versification? What are they?

482. Continuous Rhythms are those which sweep with an uninterrupted modulation from the beginning to the end of a system.

There may be pauses or rests—must be, indeed—in these rhythms. These pauses are marked by the termination of the several lines; but they are only breaks, not closes, in the melody. The whole system must be regarded as one composite rhythm, and may be treated as a single extended verse separated into sections of varying length by metrical pauses.

483. Continuous rhythms are of two kinds in English versification—Symmetrical and Unsymmetrical.

OBS.—But little attention has been paid by writers on English Grammar or on English Composition to these rhythms.

484. Symmetrical continuous rhythm expresses an extended melody through the regular metrical forms of the stanza, or other combinations of verse.

Milton's *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, and *Lycidas*, and Shelley's lines among the Euganean Hills may serve as examples.

485. Unsymmetrical continuous rhythm prolongs an unbroken melody through lines of varying length, with rhymes irregularly arranged.

OBS. 1.—These rhythms have been rarely employed with success in English versification. Dryden, Collins, Coleridge, Shelley, have displayed considerable mastery over their difficult beauties.

OBS. 2.—The continuous rhythms are formed from the due combination of all the elements of rhythm. They are subdivided by the rhythmical movements of the several lines, and each line is additionally modulated by the metrical pauses, which introduce variety without destroying the harmony.

The roar of the waves breaking on the rocky shore of a stormy sea is the conjoint result of many sounds variously proportioned among themselves, and comprising the almost inaudible murmurs of the slighter undulations, as well as the louder reverberations of the bursting billows. All combine together in a marvellous and inextricable harmony, and produce upon ear and heart a single though composite effect. So, in the movements of continuous rhythm, the general melody unites in one delightful impression the larger proportion with all the smaller proportions of sound comprehended within it, and the continuous rhythm itself rolls on,

Distinct as the billows, though one as the sea.

482. What are Continuous Rhythms? 483. What are the two kinds of continuous rhythm? 484. What is the nature of Symmetrical continuous rhythm? 485. What is the character of Unsymmetrical continuous rhythm?



EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

To Parse is to point out the class to which each word in the sentence belongs, or to designate what Part of Speech it is ; to tell its number, gender, case, person, degree, voice, tense, mood, &c. ; to indicate the word or words on which it depends, or which are dependent on it ; to state the words which agree with each other, or the words and clauses which are connected with each other ; and to give the definitions and rules which explain these various peculiarities, or affections of words.

To Parse is, therefore, to declare and explain the etymological character, and the syntactical relations of the words employed in forming a sentence.

The practise of parsing, as ordinarily conducted, may be easily carried too far in the exercises of the school. Its object is to familiarize the scholar with the character, forms, and inflections of English words, and with the requirements of syntax in their combination into sentences. To this extent, it is an indispensable discipline. But, after this knowledge has been acquired, it should not be too diligently prosecuted, for there is danger of its producing a mechanical and formal precision—a pedantic superficiality—which prevents alike a due appreciation of the marvellous pliability of the English tongue, and the desired facility in its free and graceful employment in speaking and writing.

It is, accordingly, recommended that parsing be prosecuted only so far as is needful to impress permanently upon the mind the general principles of grammar, and not so far as to produce the delusion that the knowledge of these can be accepted as a sufficient knowledge of English.

I. THE NOUN.

(Arts. 84-95, 164-198.)

MODELS.

1. "*Mary studies her lesson.*"

Mary....is a noun, proper, feminine, singular, nominative; the subject of the verb *studies*. RULE I. Art. 371. (Repeat the rule.)

lesson....is a noun, common, neuter, singular, objective, after the transitive verb *studies*. RULE XV. Art. 385. (Repeat the rule.)

2. "*Charles, give this book to Jane, Mary's sister.*"

Charles..is a noun, proper, masculine, singular, nominative; and is independent, being a term of address. (R. XIV.)

book....is a noun, common, neuter, singular, objective, after the transitive verb *give*. (R. XV.)

Jane....is a noun, proper, feminine, singular, objective, after the preposition *to*. (R. XXIV.)

Mary's...is a noun, proper, feminine, singular, possessive, qualifying *sister*. (R. XXI.)

sister....is a noun, common, feminine, singular, objective, in apposition with *Jane*. (R. VI.)

OBS.—Definitions should be required from the beginner, and the rules of syntax should not be required until the young pupil becomes familiar with Etymology.

Exercises.

Parse the Nouns in the following sentences.

The ship struck upon a rock. He attempted to screen the criminal. Caligula, the Roman emperor, bestowed the consulship on his horse, Incitatus. The travellers came to a wide valley. Her dress was covered with lace and jewels. When a breeze sprang up, we hoisted our sails and put out to sea. Set a thief to catch a thief. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day. He exercised his authority with judg-

ment and decision. Out of the eater came forth meat, and out of the strong (*animal*) came forth sweetness. The city of Constantinople is built, in an exquisite situation, on the Golden Horn, a branch of the Bosphorus. The people in the neighborhood of the village collected money enough to pay for the erection of a large church.

II. THE ADJECTIVE AND THE ARTICLE.

(Arts. 96-105, 206-216; 68, 78-83.)

MODELS.

1. "*Three skilful huntsmen tracked the grizzly bear.*"

Three . . . is a numerical adjective, cardinal; belongs to *huntsmen* (R. XII.), incapable of comparison.

skilful . . . is an adjective, qualifies *huntsmen* (R. XII.); comparison, *skilful, more skilful, most skilful.* (Art. 215.)

the is an article, limiting *bear.* (R. XI.)

grizzly . . . is an adjective, qualifying *bear* (R. XII.); *grizzly, more grizzly, most grizzly*; or, *grizzlier, grizziest.*

2. "*A little, fat, old man, with the ugliest kind of face, but with an odd twinkle about his bright, grey eyes, appeared at the opposite window.*"

A an article, indefinite, limiting *man* (R. XI.); *a* before a word beginning with a consonant. (Art. 83.)

little an adjective, qualifies *man* (R. XII.), positive degree; comparison irregular, *little, less, least.* (Art. 216.)

fat an adjective, qualifies *man* (R. XII.), positive degree; comp., *fat, fatter, fattest.*

old an adjective, qualifies *man* (R. XII.), positive degree; comp. regular and irregular, *old, older* or *elder, oldest* or *eldest.* (Art. 216.)

the an article, definite, limiting *kind.* (R. XI.)

ugliest . . . an adjective, qualifying *kind* (R. XII.), superlative degree (Art. 212); comp., *ugly, uglier, ugliest.*

an an article, indefinite, limiting *twinkle* (R. XI.); *an* before a vowel. (Art. 83.)

- odd**an adjective, qualifies *twinkle* (R. XII.), positive degree ; comp., *odd*, *odder*, *oddest*.
- bright**an adjective, qualifies *eyes* (R. XII.), positive degree—*bright*, *brighter*, *brightest*.
- grey**an adjective, qualifies *eyes* (R. XII.), positive degree—*grey*, *greyer*, *greyest* ; rarely admits comparison. (Art. 216, Obs. 4.)
- the**an article, definite, limiting *window*. (R. XI.)
- opposite**an adjective, qualifying *window* (R. XII.) ; compared, in some of its significations—*opposite*, *more opposite*, *most opposite*. (See Arts. 215, 216, Obs. 4.)

Exercises.

Parse the Articles, Adjectives, and Numerals in the following sentences.

A yellow dog has a bad character. The most violent storms take place within the tropical regions. I want the fourth boy to mention six adjectives. The first shall be last, and the last shall be first. The English language is copious and expressive, though it is a less musical tongue than the Italian. The most generous man is not always the safest adviser. All classes, rich and poor, high and low, wise and foolish, are exposed to sudden and grievous calamities. In the second battle more than a thousand soldiers were left dead upon the field. The setting sun was surrounded by clouds more gorgeous and magnificent than the courtiers around the most splendid Oriental throne. A gentler and more obedient dog is not to be found. The smallest children may venture to pat his shaggy head.

III. THE PRONOUN.

(Arts. 106–129, 199–205.)

MODELS.

1. "*Lucy called her brother, and he came to her.*"

her . . . a pronoun, adjective, possessive : agreeing with *Lucy* in gender, number, and person (RULE VII.), and qualifying *brother*. (R. XII.)

he..... a pronoun, personal, third person, sing.; agreeing with *brother* (R. VII.), nominative to the verb *came* (R. I.); nom., *he, she, it*; possessive, *his, hers, its*; objective, *him, her, it*.

her..... a pronoun, personal, third person, feminine, sing.; agreeing with *Lucy* (R. VII.); objective after the preposition *to* (R. XXIV.); nom., *he, she, it*, etc.

2. "*Henry knew the man who brought the message.*"

who..... a pronoun, relative, third person, masculine, singular, agreeing with *man* (R. IX.); nom. to the verb *brought* (R. I.) Nom., *who*; poss., *whose*; obj., *whom*.

3. "*Every scholar should remember this rule.*"

every a pronoun, adjective, distributive; limits *scholar*. (R. XII.)

this..... a pronoun, adjective, demonstrative, agrees in number with *rule*. (R. VIII.)

4. "*Whom did you see?*"

whom..... a pron.; interrogative, agreeing with the pronoun or noun, in the answer—therefore indiscriminate. (R. X.) Obj., dependent on the transitive verb *see*. (R. XX.)

5. "*Whoever studies diligently, will learn.*"

whoever... a pronoun, compound relative, referring to *he*, or *she*, understood; nominative to *studies*. (Rule I.)

Obs.—Words required for the grammatical completeness of this sentence are often omitted in English, as in all other languages. Such words, not being expressed, are said to be understood. In parsing, it is always necessary to supply them. In the present example, *he* or *she* may be understood; the antecedent must be singular, as is shown by the verb *studies*; it must be masculine or feminine, as intelligence is required.

6. "*I wish to do whatever is right.*"

whatever... a pron.; compound rel.: equivalent to "*that, which ever,*" *that*, being the object of *to do*, and *which ever*, the subject of *is*. (Art. 116. Obs. R. XV. and I.)

Exercises.

Parse the Pronouns in the following sentences.

I know not of whom he speaks. I welcomed those who came to see me, though they did not bring me the relief that I expected from them. We seldom have such hot weather in April as we have in September. (Arts. 129, 118.) My father sent me to say that he wants that gun that he lent you some weeks since. I know it to be mine, for I bought it with my own money. Whatever you may say, it is not yours, nor John's, nor any other's, but one of mine. (Art. 202; Obs. 3, 4.) Is it possible that the soldier whose arm was broken should have no knowledge of what he felt, when the ball struck him, if he was able to walk many miles to seek aid from others? Who would have thought that any such act would have been performed by one who had enjoyed so many advantages as he? What must we think of him? Let him excuse his offence himself, if he can: no one else can invent any excuse for him.

IV. THE VERB.

(Arts. 130–137, 219–301.)

MODELS

1. “*Brutus stabbed Cæsar.*”

stabbed...is a verb, regular, transitive, active, indicative, present, 3d pers. sing. (*stab—stabbed—stabbed*), agreeing with its subject *Brutus* (R. II.), and followed by *Cæsar* in the objective. (R. XV.)

2. “*The boys are anxious to go.*”

are.....is a verb, irregular, 3d pers. sing. pres. ind. (*am—was—been*), agreeing with its nom. *boys*. (R. II.)

to go.....is a verb, irregular, intransitive, present, infinitive (*go—went—gone*), dependent upon *anxious*. (R. XXVI.)

3. "*He has been caught robbing birds' nests.*"

has been } is a verb, irregular, transitive, 3d pers. sing. pres. perf.
caught.. } indic. passive (*catch—caught—caught*); agreeing with its
 nom. *he*. (R. II.)

robbing... a verb, reg. trans. present participle, active (*rob—robbed—robbed*), followed by its object *nests* (R. XV.), and qualifying *he* (R. XII.). [Or it may be considered as a participial noun in the objective after a preposition understood—"in the act of robbing."]

Exercises.

Parse the Verbs in the following sentences ; parse also the Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

Accept my thanks for the pretty book which you have given me. I am much pleased with it. I will read it in our holidays, which will be in a few days. I wish you would try to work that sum. Let us cast up the account. He was chosen captain of a volunteer company. He was called the greatest orator of his own age. He was not always successful in pleading, but he always spoke so as to produce a great impression. The children were very fond of their dog, and taught him many amusing tricks. Having collected his army, Hannibal began his march. It should have commenced at an earlier season of the year, if he had not been delayed several weeks by the difficulty of receiving provisions. Each window of the church which was built last year cost two hundred dollars.

V. THE ADVERB.

(Arts. 138–140, 217, 218.)

MODELS.

1. "*Storms have occurred frequently this summer.*"

frequently.. is an adverb (of number), qualifying the verb *occurred*.
 (R. XXXIV.)

2. "*Storms occurred still oftener last year.*"

still.....an adv. (of degree) qualifying the adverb *oftener*. (R. XXXIV.)

oftener.....an adv. (of time) comp. degree (*often—oftener—oftenest*), qualifying the verb *occurred*. (R. XXXIV.)

Exercises.

Parse the Adverbs in the following sentences ; also the Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Verbs.

The boy learns very well. Our friends arrived much sooner than was expected. The fishermen were vigorously hauling their nets, when the rope broke suddenly, and fish and nets were hopelessly lost. Yesterday, we were kindly invited to join a holiday party. All were to go together, but when everything was quite ready, a very heavy shower completely spoiled our project. We were much disappointed ; but waited patiently, thinking that perhaps it would become fair. When it cleared up (Art. 264, Obs. 1), it was thought to be too late then to set out on so long an excursion ; so we sorrowfully submitted to our disappointment. How can any one foretell what his fortune in life is most likely to be ? Where did you find that beautifully marked agate ? Was it anywhere near this lake ? No, I did not find it there.

VI. THE PREPOSITION.

(Arts. 141–146.)

MODEL.

" *The builder fell from the top of the house.*"

from..is a preposition (simple) followed by *top* in the objective case, and showing its relation to the verb *fell*.

of.....a prep. (simple) followed by *house* in the obj., and showing its relation to the word *top*.

NOTE.—In such expressions as *The tree was blown down by the gale*, *down* is usually parsed as an adverb ; but it may be treated as a preposition compounded with the verb *blow*, though separated from it. (Art. 142, Obs. 1, 2.)

Exercises.

Parse the Prepositions in the following sentences ; also the Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, and Adverbs.

There was a tear in her eye. The trees were in scattered clumps upon the hills. Row us across the river. We buried him at dead of night. The moon rose up from behind a bank of dark clouds. The fields were covered with snow. On the lake was one great sheet of ice. A crowd of men and boys was still skating on its glassy surface. Suddenly a scream ran across the lake. The ice had broken in under a little boy. A crowd gathered near the hole where he had disappeared. Everybody feared to approach near the hole. It was soon seen that there was not the least hope for the boy, as he had gone down at once to the bottom of the water. Such calamities often sadden the amusements of winter.

VII. THE CONJUNCTION.

(Arts. 147-156.)

MODELS.

1. "*Slowly and sadly we laid him down.*"

and is a conjunction, copulative, connecting *slowly* and *sadly*, adverbs. (R. XXIX.)

2. "*Live well that you may die well.*"

that a conjunction, connecting together the two clauses, *live well* and *you may die well*.

Exercises.

Parse the Conjunctions in the following sentences ; and also all the other words.

Neither you nor I shall live to see it. The sighing of the breeze, and the murmur of the waves, and the song of birds,

are much more agreeable sounds than the barking of dogs or the screaming of children. To make bears and elephants dance, and to teach dogs to perform ballets, or horses to exhibit tricks, he considered as freaks of cruelty. Consider the ravens, for they neither sow nor reap, and they have neither storehouse nor barn, yet your Heavenly Father feedeth them. As he has loved me so have I loved him. (Art. 154.) Be sure to write, so that there may be no mistake. Another man might have done it, as well as you could have hoped to do it yourself. (Art. 150.) If he told you so, you may be certain that it is true.

VIII. THE INTERJECTION.

(Arts. 157-159.)

MODELS.

1. "*Lo! I am with you always.*"

lo.....is an interj., and construed by itself. (R. XXXVII.)

2. "*Oh! what a fall was there!*"

oh.....an interj., construed by itself. (R. XXXVII.)

what a fall...an interjectional phrase (Art. 158), construed by itself
was there...(R. XXXVII.) as an interjection; but capable of being
 parsed as a clause.

Exercises.

Parse the Interjections and other words in the following sentences.

Behold! I stand at the door and knock. Alas! there is no hope of saving his life. Oh hark! oh hear! how thin and clear the sounds of elfland faintly blowing. Oh ye of little faith! Woe unto thee, Chorazin! Woe unto thee, Bethsaida! O Annie, speak to me! Ah! ah!—I am so ill! Adieu! adieu! adieu to you all! Woe betide you, Annan Water! The heralds cried, Ho! Ho!

TRANSPOSITION AND ELLIPSIS.

In parsing the literary language as it is met with in books, and still more, in parsing idiomatic phrases, it is often necessary to convert the rhetorical form of an expression into the ordinary and grammatical order of the words. (See Art. 408.) This is called *Transposition*.

EXAMPLE OF TRANSPOSITION.

“Peter,” said Henry, with a resolute air, “are you not tired of living with men?”

Transposed: Henry said with a resolute air, “Peter, are not you tired of living with men?”

It is also necessary to complete the grammatical structure of the sentence by supplying such words as are *not expressed*, but only *understood*. This omission of words is called *Ellipsis*.

EXAMPLE OF ELLIPSES SUPPLIED.

I might go try my fortune as you bade,
And joining Lucca, helped by your disgrace,
Repair our harm.

Ellipses supplied: I might go *and I might* try my fortune as you bade *me to do*, and joining Lucca, helped (*or that would be helped*) by your disgrace, *I might* repair our harm.

The most common Ellipses are—

1. Of the Relative Pronoun as the object of the Verb: The apple (*which*) you took was mine.
2. Of the Antecedent to the Relative: (*he*) “Who steals my purse, steals trash.”
3. Of the Auxiliary to the second Verb, when two Verbs are connected by a Conjunction: We had caught and (*had*) killed the fox before noon.
4. Of a Preposition after a Verb: “Steal forth (*from*) thy father’s house.”
5. Of the Conjunction *that*: He knew (*that*) I knew (*that*) he knew.

AMBIGUOUS WORDS THAT MAY BELONG TO DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

In English, as in all languages, there are words which are sometimes of one, and sometimes of another part of speech. They can be referred to their proper class only by careful observation of their use or function in the sentence, or part of the sentence, in which they occur. There will be diversity of opinion in regard to their classification, whatever discrimination may be exercised. "I would only remark, how unreasonable it is to expect schoolboys to distinguish accurately between Adverbs and Conjunctions, when the learned themselves cannot agree."—*Rushton*.

The words which most frequently occasion difficulty are, *as, both, but, for, like, much, more, most, near, only, since, so, and that*.

As is an adverb, a conjunction, and a relative pronoun.

Adv. of manner: *We live as we did ; As it was expected, so it turned out.*

Conj.: *You need not go, as I have been there.*

Rel.: *The paintings are such as are found in few collections.* (Art. 118.)

Both is an adjective and a conjunction.

Adj.: *Both were drowned.*

Conj.: *Both by their preaching and by their living, they may set forth Thy glory.*

But is an adverb, a preposition, and a conjunction.

Adv., meaning *only*: *There is but one at home.*

Prep., meaning *except*: *All but him were caught.*

Conjunc.: *You may seek, but you will not find.*

For is a preposition and conjunction.

Prep.: *They fought for freedom.*

Conj., in the sense of *because*: *He stumbled, for he could not see.*

Like is an adjective and a preposition ; *so* is *near*.

Adj.: *Like causes produce like effects.*

Prep.: *He is like his grandfather.*

Like, used as a preposition, is often considered as the Adjective, with the preposition *to* understood. It is not necessary to supply *to*.

Much, *more*, *most*, are used as adjectives, and as adverbs of degree.

Adj.: *Too much learning hath made thee mad.*

Adv.: *He was much pleased ; his brother was more pleased, and his sister was most pleased of all.*

Only is an adjective, an adverb, and may sometimes be regarded as a conjunction.

Adj.: *The girl was an only child.*

Adv.: *They were only playing.*

Conj., with the force of *but*: *You may venture, only be careful.*

The instances which exhibit the conjunctive use of *only* are probably cases of the ellipse of the true conjunction *but*.

Since is an adverb, a preposition, and a conjunction.

Adv.: *He has never spoken since.*

Prep.: *It has been raining since morning.*

Conj.: *I have changed my opinion since I saw his letter.*

So is an adjective-pronoun, perhaps, at times ; it is an adverb, and a conjunction.

Adj. pron.: *You think him cautious. He is so.*

Adv.: *Why were you so long on the way ?*

Conj.: *Error's reign is transient ; so Truth is free to combat it.*

That is found in the most various and the most puzzling constructions. All its uses are derived, however, from its character as a Demonstrative Pronoun. It sometimes appears to be almost an Article ; sometimes to be exactly equivalent to the Personal Pronoun *it* ; and is continually employed as Demonstrative Pronoun, as a Relative, and as a Conjunction.

Demonst. pron. : *That man painted that picture.*

Rel. pron. : *They that are innocent shall be released.*

Conj. : *He studies that he may acquire knowledge.*

The various and perplexing uses of the word *that* are well

Were astronomers is the predicate, *astronomers* being qualified by *most eminent*, an adjective in the superlative degree. (This may be treated as a contracted compound sentence.)

3. “*Bring me quickly the book from the study.*”

This is a simple sentence—imperative. The subject is *you* (understood). The predicate *bring* is completed by its direct object, *book*, and its indirect or secondary object, *me* (Art. 197 ; Obs. 2), and is qualified by the adverb *quickly*, and by the phrase *from the study*.

4. “*Art is long, and time is fleeting.*”

This is a compound sentence. The two members are connected by the copulative conjunction *and*. The subject of the first member is *art*, and the predicate is *is long*, *is* being the copula, and the adjective *long* qualifying *art*. (Analyze the second member in the same way.)

5. “*Columbus crossed the Atlantic and discovered the New World.*”

This is a compound sentence, equivalent to, Columbus crossed the Atlantic and Columbus discovered the New World. There is an ellipsis of the pronoun *he* as the nominative to *discovered*. As both finite verbs have the same subject, without its being repeated with the second, the sentence is said to be contracted.

Columbus is the subject of the two members of the sentence, which are connected by the conjunction *and*. *Crossed the Atlantic* is the predicate of the first member ; *discovered the New World* is the predicate of the second.

6. “*The modest stars retire when the king of day approaches.*”

This is a complex sentence. The principal clause is, *The modest stars retire*. The subordinate clause is, *the king of day approaches* : it is adverbial, and is connected with the principal clause by the conjunction *when*. (Analyze the separate clauses.)

7. "*I know that the earth is round.*"

This is a complex sentence. The principal clause is, *I know*. The subordinate clause is, *the earth is round*, a noun sentence, connected with the principal clauses by the subordinate conjunction *that*. (Art. 156.) (Analyze each clause.)

(The force of the conjunction *that*, and its demonstrative character, are shown by Horne Tooke, thus: "The earth is round—I know that.")

8. "*God, who made the heavens and the earth, ruleth over all.*"

This is a complex sentence; the subject *God* being qualified by the adjective clause, *who made the heavens and the earth*. The connection is made by the conjunctive import of the relative *who*. (Art. 115. Obs.) The principal sentence is, *God ruleth over all*.

Exercises in Analysis.

Analyze the following sentences.

I. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

Delays are always dangerous. Procrastination is the thief of time. To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow, creeps on from day to day. The same misfortune may befall any one of us. The old church by the river has fallen into ruins. The covetous man is tormented night and day by his greed and his fears. It is a very great happiness to live in a land of peace and plenty. Three great evils, ignorance, affectation, and want of taste, have introduced numerous corruptions into the English language. We are too much disposed to follow our own inclinations. Disgusted by so many discreditable acts, nearly all the man's friends deserted him. Try to pull that fine peach from the tree without letting it fall. He is said to have been a very ingenious workman in his youth. Considering all the circumstances of the explosion, the escape of any of the passengers seems extraordinary. The intense heat of the season has caused many serious diseases among the people.

II. COMPLEX SENTENCES.

I know but this, that Thou art good. Blessings on the man that invented sleep. Sound travels much more rapidly than any race-horse can run. Tell me not in mournful numbers (*that*) life is but an empty dream. I cannot tell the reason why the experiment turned out so unsuccessfully. I love to range through that half of eternity which is yet to come. What he most desires is, to have his own way without contradiction. I made a hasty retreat from the assembly as soon as the concert was ended. Whatever may be the consequence, I will endeavor to fulfill all my engagements. He will lose the respect of every good man, unless there is a great alteration in his conduct. The mountain is so high that the snow lies on its summit throughout the summer. How he made his escape still remains a profound mystery. Lazy people always do as little as they can. The doctors cannot agree among themselves which mode of treatment is most likely to be attended with success. It is uncertain when letters first came into use. If a man does not make new acquaintances as he advances in life, he will soon find himself left nearly alone.

III. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

One of the children is recovering from the attack, but the other is already dead. The day is cold, and dark, and dreary; and it rains, and the wind is never weary. We shall probably have another fine day to-morrow, for the clouds around the setting sun are very red. I have chosen you out of the world, therefore the world hateth you. Much silver was coined in England in the centuries immediately following the Norman Conquest; but neither gold nor copper was coined till a late period. He looked sorrowfully upon the dead body, but without any manifestation of anger or surprise. The vessel sank before any of the crew could be rescued. Napoleon landed in the south of France, after he had made his escape from the island of Elba.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING AND ANALYSIS.

I.

Romulus founded Rome. King Solomon built a splendid temple. The breeze is cool and refreshing. Thou art the man. The birds have flown away. Day is departing and night is descending. Whose is this image and superscription? They say unto him, Cæsar's. Whom do you think the best? He desires knowledge. She is desirous of acquiring knowledge. Those boys are too fond of idling away their time. The old man was suddenly stricken with paralysis. The house is on fire. Get some water to put it out quickly. I have never seen anything more neatly executed.

II.

Shall a mortal man be more just than God? Shall a man be more pure than his Maker? They are destroyed from morning to evening; they perish forever, without any regarding it. Man is born unto trouble as the sparks fly upward. My days are past, my purposes are broken off. Whence then cometh wisdom? and where is the place of understanding? Day unto day uttereth speech, and night unto night sheweth knowledge. (*When words are placed in a sentence according to a rhetorical arrangement, they must be parsed according to their customary or grammatical order.*) The lot is cast into the lap; but the whole disposing thereof is of the Lord. Hope deferred maketh the heart sick; but when the desire cometh, it is a tree of life. He that hath knowledge spareth his words.

III.

In looking at our age, I am struck immediately with one commanding characteristic, and that is the tendency in all its movements to expansion, to diffusion, to universality. To this, I ask your attention. This tendency is directly opposed to the spirit of exclusiveness, restriction, narrowness, monopoly, which has prevailed in past ages. Human action is now freer, more unconfined. All goods, advantages, helps, are more open to all. The privileged, petted individual is becoming less, and the human race are becoming more. The multitude is rising from the dust. Once we heard of the few, now of the many ; once, of the prerogatives of a part, now of the rights of all. We are looking, as never before, through the disguises, envelopments of ranks and classes, to the common nature which is below them ; and are beginning to learn that every being who partakes of it, has noble powers to cultivate, solemn duties to perform, inalienable rights to assert ; a vast destiny to accomplish. The grand idea of humanity, of the importance of man as man, is spreading silently, but surely.—*Channing*.

IV.

The thoughts and feelings of Columbus must have been tumultuous and intense. At length, in spite of every difficulty and danger, he had accomplished his object. The great mystery of the ocean was revealed : his theory, which had been the scoff of sages, was triumphantly established ; he had secured to himself a glory which must be as durable as the world itself.

It is difficult even for the imagination to conceive the feelings of such a man at the moment of so sublime a discovery. What a bewildering crowd of conjectures must have thronged upon his mind as to the land which lay before him, covered with darkness! That it was fruitful, was evident from the vegetables which floated from its shores. He thought, too, that he perceived in the balmy air the fragrance of aromatic groves. The moving light which he had beheld proved that it was the residence of man. But what were its inhabitants? Were they like those of the other parts of the globe? or were they some strange and monstrous race, such as the imagination in those times was prone to give to all remote and unknown regions?—*Washington Irving.*

V.

Bess (*a hare*), I have said, died young; Tiney lived to be nine years old, and died at last, I have reason to think, of some hurt in his loins, by a fall; Puss is still living, and has just completed his tenth year, discovering no signs of decay, nor even of age, except that he has grown more discreet and less frolicsome than he was. I cannot conclude without observing that I have lately introduced a dog to his acquaintance,—a spaniel that had never seen a hare, to a hare that had never seen a spaniel. I did it with great caution, but there was no real need of it. Puss discovered no token of fear, nor Marquis (*the dog*) the least symptom of hostility. There is, therefore, it should seem, no natural antipathy between dog and hare, but the pursuit of the one occasions the flight of the other, and the dog pursues because he is trained to it.—*Cowper.*

VI.

Oft I had heard of Lucy Gray ;
And, when I crossed the wild,
I chanced to see, at break of day
The solitary child.

No mate, no comrade Lucy knew ;
She dwelt on a wide moor,—
The sweetest thing that ever grew
Beside a human door !

You yet may spy the fawn at play,
The hare upon the green ;
But the sweet face of Lucy Gray
Will never more be seen.

Yet some maintain that to this day
She is a living child ;
That you may see sweet Lucy Gray
Upon the lonesome wild.

O'er rough and smooth she trips along,
And never looks behind ;
And sings a solitary song,
That whistles in the wind.—*Wordsworth.*

VII.

The Dismal Swamp.—Numerous trunks of large and tall trees lie buried in the black mire of the morass. In so loose a soil they are easily overthrown by winds, and nearly as many have been found lying beneath the

surface of the peaty soil, as standing erect upon it. When thrown down, they are soon covered with water, and keeping wet, they never decompose, except the sapwood, which is less than an inch thick. Much of the timber is obtained by sounding a foot or two below the surface, and it is sawn into planks while half under water.

The Great Dismal has been described as being highest towards its centre. Here, however, there is an extensive lake of an oval form, seven miles long, and more than five wide, the depth, where greatest, fifteen feet; and its bottom consisting of mud like the swamp, but sometimes with a pure white sand, a foot deep, covering the mud. The water is transparent, though tinged of a pale brown color, like that of our peat-mosses, and contains abundance of fish. This sheet of water is usually even with its banks, on which a thick and tall forest grows. There is no beach, for the bank sinks perpendicularly, so that if the waters are lowered several feet, it makes no alteration in the breadth of the lake.—*Lyell*.

VIII.

A gentleman is bound to be industrious for his own sake; it is a duty which he oweth to himself, to his honor, to his interest, to his welfare. He cannot, without industry, continue like himself, or maintain the honor and repute becoming his quality and state, or secure himself from contempt and disgrace; for to be honorable and slothful are things inconsistent; seeing honor does not grow, nor can subsist without undertaking worthy designs, constantly pursuing them,

and happily achieving them : it is the fruit and reward of such actions as are not performed with ease.

He cannot, without industry, guard his personal welfare from manifold inconveniences, molestations, and mischiefs ; idleness itself will be very troublesome and irksome to him. His time will lie on his hands as a pestering encumbrance. His mind will be infested with various distractions and distempers ; vain and sad thoughts, foul lusts, and unquiet passions will spring up therein, as weeds in a neglected soil. His body will languish and become destitute of health, of vigor, of activity, for want of due exercise. All the mischiefs which naturally do spring from sloth and stupidity will seize on him.—*Isaac Barrow*.

IX.

The increase of domestic industry lays the foundation of foreign commerce. Where a great number of commodities are raised and perfected for the home-market, there will always be found some that can be exported with advantage. But if our neighbors have no art or cultivation, they cannot take them ; because they will have nothing to give in exchange. In this respect States are in the same condition as individuals. A single man can scarcely be industrious, when all his fellow-citizens are idle. The riches of the several members of a community contribute to increase my riches, whatever profession I may follow. They consume the produce of my industry, and afford me the produce of theirs in return.

Nor need any State entertain apprehensions that

their neighbors will improve to such a degree in every art and manufacture, as to have no demand from them. Nature, by giving a diversity of geniuses, climates, and soils to different nations, has secured their mutual intercourse and commerce, as long as they all remain industrious and civilized. Nay, the more the arts increase in any State, the more will be its demands from its industrious neighbors.—*Hume*.

X.

As every climate has its peculiar diseases, so every walk of life has its peculiar temptations. The literary character, assuredly, has always had its share of faults, vanity, jealousy, morbid sensibility. To these faults were now superadded the faults which are commonly found in men whose livelihood is precarious, and whose principles are exposed to the trial of severe distress. All the vices of the gambler and of the beggar were blended with those of the author. The prizes in the wretched lottery of book-making were scarcely less ruinous than the blanks. If good fortune came, it came in such a manner that it was almost certain to be abused. After months of starvation and despair, a full third night, or a well-received dedication, filled the pocket of the lean, ragged, unwashed poet with guineas. He hastened to enjoy those luxuries with the images of which his mind had been haunted whilst he was sleeping amidst the cinders, and eating potatoes at the Irish ordinary in Shoe Lane. A week of taverns soon qualified him for another year of night-cellars. Such was the life of Savage, of Boyce, and of a crowd of others.—*Macaulay*.

XI.

I am* just returned from Westminster Abbey, the place of sepulture for the philosophers, heroes, and kings of England. What a gloom do monumental inscriptions, and all the venerable remains of deceased merit inspire! Imagine a temple marked with the hand of antiquity, solemn as religious awe, adorned with all the magnificence of barbarous profusion, dim windows, fretted pillars, long colonnades, and dark ceilings. Think, then, what were my sensations at being introduced to such a scene. I stood in the midst of the temple, and threw my eyes round on the walls, filled with the statues, the inscriptions, and the monuments of the dead.

Alas! I said to myself, how does pride attend the puny child of dust even to the grave! Even humble as I am, I possess more consequence in the present scene than the greatest hero of them all; they have toiled for an hour to gain a transient immortality, and are at length returned to the grave, where they have no attendant but the worm, none to flatter but the epitaph.—*Goldsmith*.

XII.

O God! methinks it were a happy life,
To be no better than a homely swain;
To sit upon a hill, as I do now,
To carve out dials quaintly, point by point,
Thereby to see the minutes how they run.

* The verb *to be* is sometimes used instead of the Auxiliary *to have*, in forming the Past tenses of some Intransitive verbs. This practice was much more common formerly than it now is.

Ah! what a life were this! how sweet! how lovely!
Gives not the hawthorn bush a sweeter shade
To shepherds, looking on their silly sheep,
Than doth a rich embroider'd canopy
To kings, that fear their subjects' treachery?
O, yes it doth; a thousand-fold it doth.
And to conclude,—the shepherd's homely curds,
His cold thin drink out of his leather bottle,
His wonted sleep under a fresh tree's shade,
All which secure and sweetly he enjoys,
Is far beyond a prince's delicates,
His viands sparkling in a golden cup,
His body couchéd in a curious bed,
When care, mistrust, and treason wait on him.

Shakespeare.

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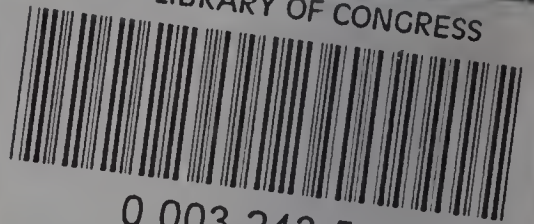
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